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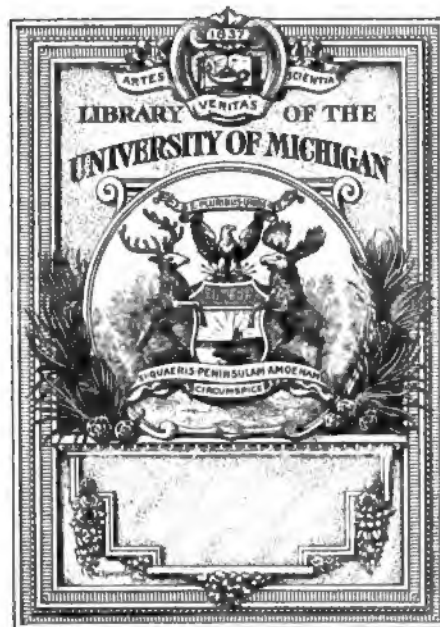
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AMERICAN ANNALS
OF
THE DEAF,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

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MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA,
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Committee of the Conference.

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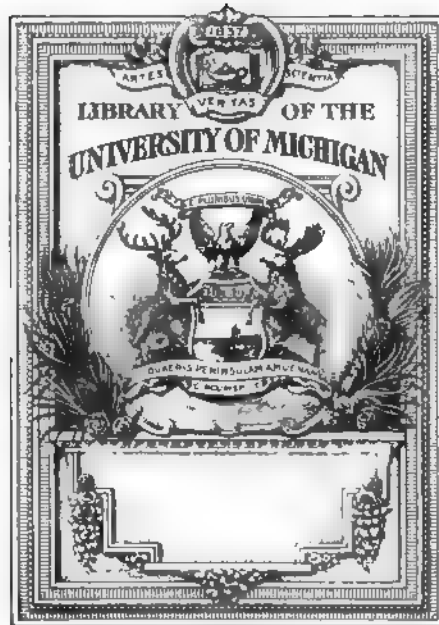
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is little doubt that thinking people, by a large majority, if inexorably compelled to choose, would prefer to lose hearing rather than sight.

Scientists tell us that the eyesight of the human race is deteriorating—one of the results, if not one of the evils, of civilization. The impure air, dust, smoke, and gases of large cities, the insufficient light of many tenements, with the too intense artificial lights, all contribute to this deterioration. The close confinement of children to the school-room for several hours a day, and the tendency to add to the number of studies, making it necessary for many children to study at home evenings in order to keep up with their classes, are also detrimental to the eyesight.

Therefore a line of Child Study relating to the eyesight of deaf children, with the view of applying the results to practical purpose, ought to be productive of good, and it was with this object in mind that our teachers took up the subject.

The Standing Committee on Child Study, consisting of four members, representing the advanced, the intermediate, the primary, and the industrial departments of the school, prepared the following suggestive outline to guide the teachers in their study of the subject:

The teachers are requested to make the following tests, and to note carefully the results:

I. Test of near- and far-sightedness with card of printed letters. Begin the test in each case with the pupil 25 feet from the card, and advance him or her until all the letters can be named. Record the distance in each case. Test the pupils separately, and try to arrange it so that the other pupils may not study the card and memorize the letters before their turn comes.

Supplementary test for intermediate and advanced classes: Take the pupils to the chapel, and test them in reading writing on the blackboard from the rear of the room, and at different angles.

II. Test eyesight in reading finger-spelling. 1st. Rapid spelling; 2d. Long-distance spelling, the latter in the chapel.

III. Test quickness of eyesight. Collect ten articles whose names are known to the pupils. Cover them up. Gather the class around. Uncover the collection of articles while you count five. Cover them again, and have the pupils write the names of all they can remember.

IV. Test in distinguishing colors, to see if there are any cases of color-blindness. Colors will be provided by the committee.

In all the above tests, note the color of the eyes, in order to determine if color bears any relation to excellence or deficiency of eyesight.

SUGGESTIONS AND QUERIES.

1. Observe if there is any marked difference in the manner of holding the book or slate, and the distance at which it is held from the eye.

2. Should not an effort be made to correct the habit some pupils have of looking diagonally on slate or paper when writing?

3. Is it poor eyesight or mental deficiency that makes some pupils so slow in reading finger-spelling? In the cases of pupils who so often ask to have a question repeated, is the fault in the outward eye or in the "mind's eye?"

4. Note any peculiarities in the size, shape, slant, color, etc., of the eye, and the relation they bear, if any, to the mental status of the pupils.

5. Note if pupils slow in vision, as shown by Tests I and II, are correspondingly slow in mind, as shown in school work.

6. Note if short-sightedness is accompanied by a bulging eye. Also if a bulging eye is accompanied by great linguistic ability.

7. Note cases, if any, in which pupils are able to see

some things, but not others, as people sometimes hear certain sounds, but not others.

8. Note cases in which defective eyesight retards the progress of pupils.

9. Note any additional facts showing relation between eyesight and scholarship.

10. If you have now, or have had, any cases of abnormal eyesight, state any matters of interest that you have observed that would indicate relation between the eyesight and scholarship.

SUBJECTS FOR THOUGHT.

1. Light in the schoolrooms. Direction from which it comes; sufficiency or insufficiency.

2. Cloudy days. Adapting work so as to relieve the eyes.

3. Attitude of pupils at desks, *i. e.*, a bent and cramped attitude retards the free circulation of the blood between head and body.

4. More use of the blackboards and less of hand-slates and paper, in order to relieve the eyes.

5. Importance of ventilation. Effect of impure air on the eyes.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

GENERAL.

1. Note any relation between color of the eye and excellence of eyesight.

2. Note the nearness of the worker's eye to the work on hand. Has this any relation to excellence of work?

3. Are pupils with poor eyesight usually poor workers?

4. Note any cases in which some defect in eyesight seems to interfere with ability to do good work.

5. Note any other circumstances that may have come under your observation, showing relationship between eyesight and working ability.

SPECIAL.

1. The Sewing Rooms:
 - Ability to thread a needle.
 - Matching colors and patterns.
 - Judging quality of cloth by sight.
 - Ability to copy figures in fancy work.
 - Taste in outlines and designs.
 - Ability to sew a straight seam.
2. The Printing Office:
 - Ability to detect errors in proofs.
 - Judging form by the eye.
 - Good taste in job work.
 - Accuracy in alignment.
3. The Shoe Shop:
 - Judging leather by sight.
 - Sewing straight seams.
 - Judging as to form and symmetry.
4. The Carpenter Shop and Sloyd Room:
 - Matching or selecting woods by sight.
 - Measuring by the eye.
 - Free-hand drawing of designs.
 - Good judgment in outline and proportion.

ART DEPARTMENT.

1. Consider such of the preceding questions and suggestions as may bear any relation to the work of the Art Department, and add others that may have come to your notice.
2. Does near-sightedness interfere with excellence in art work?
3. Find out if your best art pupils rank high in the classroom and work-room.

In addition to this, blank forms were prepared for record of the various tests suggested. One of the forms, as ultimately filled out and handed in to the Committee, is given below, in the hope that it will convey to the readers of the *Annals* a clearer idea of the scope of the study than could be given in a word description:

Physical Characteristics of Pupils.

NAME OF PUPIL.	TEST I.		TEST II.		TEST III. Number of Objects.	TEST IV.	COLOR OF EYE.	SHAPE— Normal. Bulging. Small. Sunken. Slanting.	SIGHT— Normal. Short. Far.	SCHOLARSHIP— A—Excellent. B—Medium. C—Poor.
	Card. Large. Small.	Writing dis- tance.	Rapid.	Long dis- tance.						
E. C.	40	6	52	100	9	O. K.	brown	normal	far	A
E. G.	6	1½	14	12	5	O. K.	blue-grey	bulging	very short	A
J. H.	30	4	52	100	10	O. K.	blue	deep set	normal	B—C
O. L.	36	5	52	100	8	O. K.	light brown	normal	far	A
F. M.	30	5½	52	100	9	O. K.	blue	normal	normal	A
O. N.	30	6	52	100	9	O. K.	blue	normal	normal	A
A. B.	10	1½	31	30	3	O. K.	blue	glassy	very short	B—C
A. D.	30	6	52	94	5	O. K.	blue	normal	normal	C
A. H.	17	3	52	76	6	O. K.	blue	normal	short	C
A. T.	21	2	52	100	7	O. K.	blue	normal	short	A—B
M. V.	12	1½	52	75	8	O. K.	grey	normal	very short	A—B

In order to secure uniformity, and in that way make the tests more conclusive when summing them up in search of facts and conclusions, all were conducted under the personal supervision of the member of the Committee representing each department of the school.

The data and comments that follow apply only to the advanced and intermediate departments of the school. For one reason, the tests relating to the primary department have been mislaid and cannot be found; also some of the tests outlined above were inapplicable to the youngest pupils, while others could hardly be considered conclusive, on account of doubt as to whether some pupils understood what was wanted of them in the tests. It may be stated, however, that nothing radically different was demonstrated in the primary tests from what the more advanced tests showed.

The following card of letters was used in Test I*:

*The letters of the first line of the card are printed in the *Annals* from a heavier type than in the copy used in the Minnesota School, and the letters in all the lines stand nearer to one another.—E. A. F.

A B C X U Z

N U V Á C R

S A V U N Z

A C X Y O R

B N P Z H S

S U V R X Z

R A C O V U

In making the test it was found sufficient to have each pupil read the letters in the first and last lines only, to which the "large" and "small" in the chart refer. The figures in the three columns under Test I represent the distance in feet at which the pupil read what was required. Pupils who wore glasses were tested both with and without them. The pupils were tested one at a time, and care was taken that the other pupils of the class should not be in a position to memorize the letters on the card.

while awaiting their turn. In a few instances, "smart" pupils would step up to the 40-foot mark and rattle off A, B, C, D, E, F, as the first line. They were informed that they were seeing with their mind's eye rather than with the real optic, and were then a little less confident.

The long-distance writing test consisted of unfamiliar sentences written on the chapel blackboard in handwriting of ordinary size. The pupils were ranged along the back wall of the chapel, at a distance of about fifty-two feet from the blackboard, and were asked to repeat what was written, each one privately, to the person conducting the test.

The test in reading rapid finger-spelling consisted of ten statements spelled rapidly to the class by the teacher, and written down, one after another, by the pupils. The figures under this head on the chart represent the per cent. of sentences entirely correct.

The test in reading finger-spelling at a distance was conducted in the chapel, diagonally across the room from opposite corners, a distance of about 100 feet.

In both the finger-spelling tests, the teacher of the class was allowed to do the spelling, on the ground that it would be fairer to the pupils, as they were accustomed to the spelling of their teacher.

Test III, "Number of Objects," is explained in the outline given on a preceding page. The objects, while small, were simple, so that the pupils might not stumble on the names. As the test was to be simply one of quickness of perception and memory, a correct picture of an object was accepted in lieu of a name, when the pupil recognized and remembered an object but did not know its name. The figures under this head indicate the number of objects perceived and named by each pupil.

The test for color blindness was made with two sets of twenty-four different shades. The colors were given to

.

the pupil in confusion, and he was required to match the different shades.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS.

The tests embody ten classes, containing 135 pupils.

Of these, 75 appear to have normal sight, 19 above normal, and 41 short.

Those are classed as normal who can read the large letters on the card at a distance of 25 to 35 feet, and the small, 3 or 4 feet.

The color of the 135 pairs of eyes is as follows: Blue, 59; brown, 36; grey, 33; hazel, 6; unlike, grey and hazel, 1.

Of the 75 with normal eyesight, 30 have blue eyes; 21, brown; 20, grey; hazel, 4.

Of the 19 with more than normal eyesight, 6 have blue eyes; 9, brown; 3, grey; hazel, 1.

Of the 41 with short sight, 24 have blue eyes; 5, brown; 11, grey; hazel, 1.

Among the 41 short-sighted pupils, 19 are very short-sighted, and are divided as follows: Blue eyes, 11; brown, 1; grey, 6; hazel, 1.

Several of the teachers had been under the impression that imperfect sight was more common among people with brown eyes than with those of other colors. These tests, so far as they go, prove exactly the contrary.

The long-distance writing and spelling tests showed that very few of the 135 pupils could not read ordinary black-board writing from the back wall of the chapel, and fully two-thirds of them could read distinct finger-spelling at a distance of 100 feet. It is possible that a number of pupils could somewhat exceed this 100-foot limit, but it was as great a distance as we could find within doors in favorable light.

The pupils of the oral classes were exempted from the

rapid spelling test on the ground that they are not so familiar with finger-spelling as manual pupils. This left 95 pupils to undergo the test. Sixteen of these scored 100 per cent.

Color of eyes and excellence of sight seem to play no part in this test. Four of the 16 are very short-sighted.

Scholarship, however, seems to have a decided bearing on the results, inasmuch as 11 of the 16 rank A (excellent); 5 B (medium); and not one C (poor).

In this same test 38 other pupils scored between 90 and 100 per cent. Seventeen of these rank A; 13, B; 8, C.

Of the 15 pupils who made a very poor showing in the same test, 8 are poor scholars, 5 are medium, and 2 excellent.

The conclusion seems to be, therefore, that the ability to read rapid finger-spelling is more a mental than an optical power.

In the test for naming objects at sight, 5 pupils were perfect. Three of these have sight above normal, and 2 normal. In scholarship 3 rank A; 2 B.

Seventy-three of the pupils in this test named from 7 to 9 of the objects correctly. Of these, 55 have normal or above normal sight. Most of them rank A and B in scholarship, with A leading. The poorest in this test were mostly short-sighted and in rank of C scholarship.

It seems to be demonstrated that in tests calling for quickness of perception, mental ability is a greater factor than excellence of eyesight.

In the color test, only 14 out of 135 pupils made any mistakes in matching colors, and these were slight, mostly in grey shades. No evidence of color-blindness was brought out by these tests.

Among the 41 short-sighted pupils, 14 rank A in scholarship; 17 B; and only 10 C. Therefore, it appears that short-sightedness is not, as a rule, accompanied by mental deficiency.

SOME PRACTICAL RESULTS OF THE TESTS.

While the tests were being made, three or four cases were found where pupils were wearing glasses, but they could see as well without them. In most of these cases the glasses had been provided at home. As a result of the tests, these pupils have discarded their glasses, and get along all right without them. One case was especially marked. A young girl was wearing glasses who could actually see better without them, and every test showed that her eyesight was normal. It appeared that some time ago she complained of pain in her eyes, and her home friends provided her with glasses, whether or not by expert advice is not known. But she no longer wears the glasses, and has no trouble with her eyes.

Five cases were found of pupils wearing glasses on account of short-sightedness. The glasses, however, were of no benefit at all, as they could see as well, or rather as ill, without them. A change of glasses seemed to be imperative in these cases.

One girl was exceedingly short-sighted. She wore no glasses, though she had a pair put away. She was asked to get them and put them on. They greatly improved her sight. She was earnestly admonished by the teacher conducting the test to wear her glasses continually. Her only reason for discarding them seemed to be that they did not look well.

One of the brightest girls in the school could read the large letters on the card only at the distance at which normal eyes could read the smallest ones. She had never had glasses. The need for treatment in this case seemed especially urgent.

Superintendent Tate was an interested listener at this meeting of the Teachers' Association. Before adjournment he requested the members of the Committee to

hand him the names of all the pupils whom the tests showed to be so short-sighted as to suggest the need of glasses. About forty names were given him. These pupils were all carefully examined by our oculist, and such as could be benefited by glasses were provided with them.

THE INDUSTRIAL AND ART DEPARTMENTS.

The art teacher had nothing in particular to report, except that, as a rule, the best art pupils stood well in the classroom.

The instructor in sloyd, who was the member of the Committee representing the industrial department, made a report for all the trades. He had found no relation between color of eyes and excellence of work. The work of near-sighted pupils is usually below the average. Pupils with poor eyesight are not necessarily slow in their work but they are not so neat or observant of details as others. As a general thing, far-sighted pupils are more restless and less attentive to their work than others. He ascribes this to the fact that they see too many things that distract their attention.

The instructress in sewing was of the opinion that such faults as she had noticed among the girls were due rather to carelessness and inattention than to difference in eyesight.

The instructor in shoe-making thought practice and experience had more to do with the work in his department than mere eyesight.

The instructor in carpentry said that good eyes were necessary, in addition to experience, in matching and selecting woods, measuring by the eye, and in free-hand drawing and designing.


SOME THOUGHTS SUGGESTED BY THE TESTS.

Some schools for the deaf have an expert oculist in their employ, and such as have not should have. But one ex-

amination of pupils, usually at the beginning of their school course, should not suffice. Oculists are as liable to err as other people. When the oculist has a large number of pupils to test, he can hardly do it in an entirely thorough manner. Moreover, young pupils, who cannot understand or answer his questions, may easily be diagnosed incorrectly. Therefore, tests similar to those here described, conducted by the teacher of each class, have their value. Such tests should be made every year or two. Some eye troubles are merely temporary, and may be removed by the healthful and regular life of the school. Weak eyes that need glasses one year may not need them in a year or two, and glasses worn when not needed are an injury, not a benefit.

The tests will be useful to the teachers in seating pupils in the schoolroom. It is possible that pupils who seem dull or inattentive may be quite near-sighted, and if seated in the back part of the room may not be able to follow the teacher clearly. The writer has had one or two cases of the kind. One boy in the class seemed rather backward, and could not answer questions put to him by finger-spelling. He would usually answer, "I don't know," or "I don't understand." When the class work was written however, he was usually one of the best, if given time. At last his teacher found that he was near-sighted, and by spelling slowly and distinctly, obtained excellent results from him.

The boy above referred to was diffident about his defect, and preferred to appear to fail in his lesson rather than to draw attention to himself by saying that he could not see. Most children, and grown people too, for that matter, are shy about calling attention to defects that are not outwardly obvious to other people. One of the brightest girl graduates of the Minnesota School, meeting her teacher several years after graduation, told him that during the last years of her course at school she never



understood any of the chapel lectures, because she could not see well enough to distinguish what was said on the platform. She was near-sighted, but too diffident to tell any one about it, and although she had been examined by the oculist when she first entered school, he had not discovered her defect. Tests by the teachers, such as those outlined in this paper, would have discovered the defect in short order.

A score or more years ago, there was a boy at this school whose youthful fancy was attracted by a pretty, brown-eyed girl pupil. At that time the girls' study and play-room was in the third story of the building. This youth, whenever he passed by the girls' wing—which was oftener than really necessary—and saw the object of his fancy at a window, would greet her and say something nice to her. He was often grieved at her apparent unresponsiveness, but attributed it to maidenly coyness. It was only years after, when she was but a memory, and his heart had gone after other fancies, that he found out that those pretty brown eyes were sadly defective, and when he was casting glances and remarks to her standing at a third-story window, he himself, to her, was but a blot on the landscape.

A few months ago there was quite a touching story in the *Youth's Companion* bearing on this subject. It told of a little orphan boy who was being brought up by two maiden aunts, worthy and conscientious ladies, though somewhat narrow in their view and experiences. To them the little fellow seemed to be careless and obstinate. They reasoned with him, admonished him, and finally had recourse to rather severe punishment, but all seemed in vain. They were ready to conclude that he was incorrigible. At this juncture their brother visited them, and they told him of Jimmy's "badness." This uncle was an observant person, and he soon discovered what the matter

with Jimmy was. He took him to town and had him fitted with a pair of glasses, whereupon Jimmy's carelessness, obstinacy, and "badness" disappeared. When he was asked by his aunts why he did not tell them of his near-sightedness he replied that he did not know it himself, but thought that all children were like him. When his aunts scolded him and punished him so often for his carelessness and blunders, he began to think that he was really a very naughty boy. This story has a moral, which all who have to do with the care and training of children can easily apply.

Tests of deaf children in regard to their ability to read blackboard writing or finger-spelling at long distances have their practical value in the arrangement of chapels or assembly rooms. Although our tests demonstrated that the pupils could read writing and spelling at considerable distances, yet to do so for any length of time would put a strain upon their eyes. General assembly rooms for deaf children should be broad rather than long, with the seats arranged in a partly semi-circular form in front of the platform, to the end that as many as possible may be near the lecturer. In large schools, containing over three hundred pupils, it would, perhaps, be better to have two assembly rooms, one for the older and the other for the younger pupils, or at least have the two classes divided, and the assemblages at different times in the same room. There would thus be relief to the eyesight of those obliged to sit in the rear of a large assemblage, and there would also be a mental gain in the better adaptation of the discourse to the understanding of the pupils.

The lighting of schoolrooms has an important bearing upon eyesight. The desks at which the pupils sit and study should be arranged so as to get the best advantage from the light. Good authorities say that the light should fall over the left shoulder. I remember reading some-

where that the very best light for a schoolroom would be from a skylight.

The attitude of pupils at their desks is worthy of attention. Many pupils have a habit, when writing, of holding their heads to one side, so that the eyes fall on the work diagonally, bringing one eye nearer than the other. This puts an unequal strain on the two eyes, which, if continued daily, must be a detriment to perfect sight.

The careful teacher will plan to vary the work of the pupils so that they may not be confined too much to their desks, bending over slate, paper, or book. Work at the blackboard will do much to relieve this strain.

Ventilation has an important bearing upon eyesight. Poisonous air, while acting most directly upon the lungs, affects the delicate membrane of the eye detrimentally. The air in a schoolroom quickly becomes vitiated unless there is good ventilation and plenty of it. One great disadvantage about bad air is that the occupants of the room are apt not to notice it. Any one can observe that reading or study, continued for any length of time in an ill-ventilated room, causes the eyes to feel inflamed. Probably most people would ascribe this to too much reading, when it is really the effect of poisonous air upon the membrane of the eye.

Eyesight is one of the greatest gifts to mankind. The eye, with its delicate adjustment of lenses, humors, and membranes, and the optic nerve to carry sensations to the brain, is a wonderful organ, the source of some of man's highest intellectual and social pleasures. It is more susceptible than most other parts of the bodily organism to neglect and abuse. There is every reason, then, to guard it carefully, especially in childhood and youth, when the foundation is laid for so many of the ills that afflict the human race.

If the teacher of deaf children, by studying the eyesight

of pupils on a line similar to what this paper has aimed to present, can protect the eyesight of even one child out of many, in that lies sufficient recompense for the time and thought expended.

JAMES L. SMITH,
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HISTORY.

HISTORY finds its best expression in the individual. Well did Emerson say, "All history becomes subjective; in other words, there is no history, only biography." Great movements, wars, battles, etc., are only incidentals to the one object for which the drama of history is being enacted—the amelioration and advancement of the race.

Over such a vast field do the activities of man extend that almost co-extensive with the study of history is that of geography. No sooner do we begin the reading or study of history than the necessity of a knowledge of the great facts of geography becomes apparent. The study of history and geography should be combined. Then names of persons, places, and stories all unite to make a more vivid and lasting impression on the mind, besides throwing a flood of light on a thousand other things. This plan eliminates many useless details.

Charles A. McMurry, Ph. D., a profound student of education, places history at the very head of the list of the studies in the schools. His chief reason is probably best given in his own words: "History contributes the materials from which motives and moral impulses spring. It cultivates and strengthens the moral convictions by the use of inspiring examples. The character of each child should be drawn into harmony with the highest impulses that men have left." The underlying question in education,

he says, is not how strong and incisive the mind is, but "What is its quality and temper?"

So much for the influence of history in the formation of character, the first thing in life. But this is only a part of its usefulness. It is an exhaustless storehouse of information. It touches on man's every important relation with the external and even the eternal world, on questions that are of transcendent interest to every human being. Without it many facts, principles, and events would be little better than blanks. No study is more liberalizing. It enlightens the ignorant, broadens the narrow, and tempers the prejudiced. What better instrument have we for inspiring the youth with patriotism when its pages glow with deeds of heroism and love of their native land, performed by those who considered it the greatest of honors to die in the service of their country?

If this view of history fits into any scheme of education it surely does into that of the deaf. It furnishes them with the very first incentives to reading in the form of biographies, stories, and even historical novels. In the Wisconsin School several copies of Mr. John E. Crane's "Bits of History"* have been worn out by reading. History also gives more of the usual forms of language than any other study.

In regard to text-books in history I do not propose to quarrel either with the book publishers or my tools, but make the best of what there is. There are text-books on all subjects and their name is legion. Of course we want a good book, well suited to the purpose. The text-book should always be harder than the book for reading. Nothing is gained by making everything smooth sailing.

My own treatment of history is by subjects as far as possible, handling them in different ways until they become quite familiar to the pupils so far as their substance

*Published by the American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf.

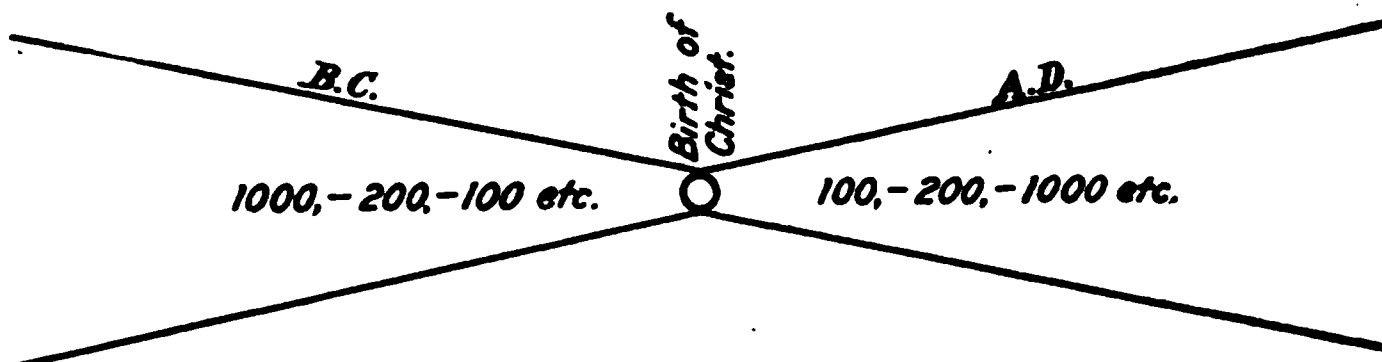
and expression go. Care is taken never to subordinate intelligence to mere memory. Dates are required only for important events or periods. If it is desired to cultivate the memory, selections may be made. In the more advanced grades this method keeps the pupil working at the meaning of things, or giving the why and the wherefore of them, or comparing persons, countries, times, or conditions. (Of course, too, often the least satisfactory part of the work is the language, but my "Device in Teaching Language"* has been of much assistance, and the more the device is used the better is the language all along the line. I find that by attempting little and doing that well results are better in every way.

It is impossible to overestimate the value of maps, charts, and pictures in history teaching. Every reference to the two former is looked up, but the pictures are not always at hand. That is one reason why an acquaintance with elementary drawing is such an indispensable qualification in a teacher of the deaf.

Pains should be taken to explain the meaning and use of leading terms or words, such as discover, explore, settle, colony, colonist, attack, surrender, rebellion, cede, secede, take up arms, lay down arms, siege, make treaties, period, century, and many others which the teacher will readily recognize. The idea of time should be early developed. For a starting point I begin with the ages of the children themselves. From their ages it is easy to pass on to older persons and from them to the period the children have been in school; then to the time when the school was built, and finally to historical characters and events according to the ability of the class. This plan has worked admirably. It is proceeding on the principle of interpreting the new by means of the old, which is susceptible of a very broad

*See the *Annals* for February and April 1888, vol. xiii, pp. 78-87, 170-182.

application in education. The only chart worth mentioning that I have devised represents the birth of Christ as the central point of all history, from which dates are reckoned either way, thus:



As to subject-matter for beginners or as an introduction to history, life sketches or stories in their simplest form are the best. Reading books for beginners should have a liberal sprinkling of such matter, but if it is possible to secure text-books of that character all the better. I am strongly opposed to manuscript lessons as a regular thing unless suitable books are not obtainable, and as to notebooks I have entirely discarded them for the last six or seven years. If anything of permanent value is to be secured the pupil must make it his own while he is at it, and the teacher should so regulate the quantity as to make this possible. Another thing. If pupils while at school do not learn to understand the language of books, newspapers, etc., as they are usually written, it is doubtful if they ever will. Indeed, this should be one of the primary aims in their education. So many books for children and young people are written nowadays in simple language that this continual simplifying or rewriting to suit deaf children is almost inexcusable.

The next step will bring the pupil more closely into contact with the lives of the noted people who have helped to make this country what it is, and a few facts more or less historical, such as we find in "A First Book in American History."* In this book he begins to see how persons

*By Edward Eggleston, published by the American Book Company.

and events are related. It is well for him to know who the Indians were and why they came to America, the object of the Revolution and the part that Washington took in it, the growth or expansion of the country, who the great inventors were and the good their inventions did, the Civil War and what brought it about, etc. Further advancement reveals the necessity of a deeper insight into the cause and effect of great events, if the scholar is to study history aright. He should know the causes of the Revolution, the War of 1812, the Civil War, etc. It is also desirable to have him understand such things as the Stamp Act, the Declaration of Independence, the Monroe Doctrine, the Missouri Compromise; the difference between a civil and a foreign war; to compare the country now with what it was thirty, fifty, or a hundred years ago, and note the improvements in the conditions of life, education, transportation, machinery, the increase and center of population, and everything that will throw light on the progress of the country as a whole, not overlooking at the same time current history.

In general history, I pay less attention to wars and the affairs of rulers and courts than to the situation of ancient and mediæval countries; what sort of people inhabited them, and how they were affected by their environment; their government; what they did, believed, studied; in what they excelled; and finally what was the best thing they bequeathed to the world.

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TRYING TO USE THE AKOULALION.*—II.

At the end of May, 1902, the writer and the boy known to the readers of the *Annals* as Creighton completed sixty-six practical periods with the Akoulalion; from October 26 to January 1, these periods occurred twice a week, after that time three times a week, but the Christmas holidays and an enforced vacation on account of the illness of the teacher in February made the number smaller than it otherwise would have been. The Editor of the *Annals* believes that some account of these practice periods, for which "lesson" is too ambitious a name, would be of interest, and so some extracts from the diary in which the boy and the teacher registered their impressions, and a little general discussion of theory and results are here put together at his request.

After the first of January the teacher usually staid an hour and a half or two hours, and during that time the Akoulalion was in actual use from twenty-five to forty minutes, occasionally, perhaps, longer. The time when the ear-pieces were removed for rest was utilized for ordinary articulation teaching and practice in very rapid lip-reading, because the mental effect of work with the instrument seemed to be conducive to concentrated effort toward good speech. As the following extracts will show, the degree of success varied greatly; sometimes the physical condition of the pupil accounted for the variation, as when a cold in his head caused him to declare that he was "entirely deaf;" and sometimes his mental (or moral) condition was held responsible for the lack of results by the teacher, who upon such occasions declared him "entirely careless;" although it is more than possible that some unrecognized physical reason may have deserved the

*Continued from the *Annals* for January, 1902, vol. xlvii, page 48.

blame, for his attention and interest always rose to par immediately upon the removal of the ear-pieces.

NOVEMBER 21, 1901.

We really had remarkable luck. We used some box-covers so as to make sure no lip-reading was possible. Creighton was able to distinguish almost every word which we have practiced, and added *Washington*, *Adams*, and *Jefferson* to his vocabulary. We had in all four five-minute periods of work and ten minutes of music.

NOVEMBER 23, 1901.

Luck was rather against us to-day. Up to the time when we tried the music everything went wrong, but after that we did some fairly satisfactory work with *ar*, *oo*, and in distinguishing high and low tones. Next time we are going to try the music first. Creighton says, "Music hath charms . . . etc."

NOVEMBER 26, 1901.

More satisfactory by far. We practiced on *kangaroo*, *whale*, and *elephant*, and Creighton decided that a new word should be said to him distinctly about ten times and that then he should know what it was.

NOVEMBER 29, 1901.

Better luck to-day. We tried *Thanksgiving*, *Christmas*, and *New Year's*. Creighton said they were easy to distinguish because *Thanksgiving* had three syllables, *Christmas* had two, and *New Year's* was "very weak."

Later we tried *Public Garden* and *Boston Common*. It was a question whether this last should be *Common* or *Boston Common*, and Creighton decided for the second because he said the vowels in it were all alike and he fancied he should be able to distinguish it at once. The event proved him to be right; he could tell it from the other words learned

during this lesson every time, but when we came to mix *chrysanthemum* with all these words he was not so sure. He never called *chrysanthemum* itself anything else; but he did call other words *chrysanthemum* occasionally.

The old words of previous lessons were more readily distinguished than ever before.

One thing was especially noticeable at this lesson: he recognized immediately, when a word outside the group upon which we happened to be working was introduced, that it was outside the group.

On the whole, this is the most encouraging lesson we have ever had.

* * * * *

DECEMBER 19, 1901.

To-day we have done something entirely new. We have convinced ourselves that it is possible to distinguish one-syllabled words from their vowels, succeeding with *oo*, *soup*; *i*, *milk*; *a*, *ball*; and *ō*, *globe*. Such work is a little "wearisome," however, according to one of us. (Not the teacher!)

Creighton finds that his hearing is certainly improving. When we came to review some of our old words he found that consonants were now audible and distinguishable to him in some cases where formerly he had only heard the vowels and recognized the words by means of them.

He likes occasionally to direct the lesson himself, saying, "Say *fish* three times," then after listening, "Now *dish*," etc.

TUESDAY, JANUARY 7, 1902.

The first lesson of the New Year, and something very wonderful indeed has happened. In the first place we started in with the Akoulalion to see what Creighton could remember after more than a fortnight's vacation. We

tried the holiday group and he distinguished *Christmas*, *Thanksgiving*, and *New Year's* at once in any order. Then the food group was brought into play and once there was a little slip-up, but on the whole it was quite satisfactory. Our old friend *chrysanthemum* was introduced here and cordially greeted. Then the animals, *cat*, *dog*, *elephant*, *kangaroo*, and *whale* these were all right, but Creighton's outer ears were tired, and five minutes and more had elapsed, so he took off the ear-pieces.

Just for fun I tried the animal group, at first only *whale* and *elephant*, speaking in a loud tone just behind his ears. To my surprise he knew in a moment what I was saying. Then I tried all the group and the holidays and *chrysanthemum*, and he knew them all, back and forth and up and down.*

JANUARY 9, 1902.

We tested the consonants to-day, and Creighton found that he heard them all. He was even sure of *h*, which I gave him alone, and also contrasted with its absence, as in *ome home*, *orse horse*. Each time he said that there was a difference in the two sounds, but he could not explain the nature of the difference exactly.

JANUARY 14, 1902.

Work on vowels, *oo*, *ar*, *ee*, *aw*. Creighton says that *ee* is very faint, so faint that it is only recognizable by its very faintness. On the whole he found that he could recognize each of these four sounds very well.

Combinations! Successful!!

Some explanation of these exclamations is necessary.

*The boy has been very unwilling to repeat this experiment. Occasionally, immediately after taking off the ear-pieces he has allowed a little testing of his hearing, but the slightest mistake discourages him and causes him to decline to listen. He will give no explanation beyond the general one to the effect that it is "of no use."

Pupil and teacher had agreed upon a theory something like this: Eventually all the consonants and vowels were to be learned so perfectly as to be recognized instantly, and then they were to be combined by the teacher in any way she chose, that is into any word she chose, and repeated by the pupil simply as a combination; then from her lips, or from his own sensation, if he could, he was to identify the word, and after that the understanding of spoken speech would be a matter of time and practice.

“Combinations! Successful!!” noted in the diary the first step toward the demonstration of the practicability of this theory. He knew *k* and he knew *ow* and *aw*, so *cow* and *caw* and *awk* contained nothing unknown, and these were tried. He knew them at once, saying *cow* as though it were a vowel or something unmeaning the first time, and then when it was repeated suddenly remarking, “No more milk, thank you, go ahead!” After that he seemed to try to identify what he said with something previously known, and succeeded in establishing an acquaintance with several combinations as words. In a very few minutes, however, work of this kind had to stop, for he complained that everything sounded alike.

JANUARY 16, 1902.

f ow.

Creighton listened to his own *f* and decided that mine was “too violent.” The vowels so far used were perfectly remembered when given alone, or in combination with each other, but with *f* initial they gave a little trouble.

In reviewing the food group and the animal group I gave *dog*, which was at once recognized; then without any warning I gave *God*, and quick as a flash came the answer *Got*. This was the first time that a word new, but composed of known sounds, has been named involuntarily. When Creighton found what the word really was he said:

“Well, you had better omit that from any future lessons; it does not seem to me a proper word for drill purposes.”

* * * * *

coat

trousers

toque

suspenders

shirt

belt.

These words were learned and distinguished from each other and from words previously learned, not by any means perfectly, but fairly well. Creighton finds that he can almost invariably take five or six new words and tell them from each other, but just as soon as they are mixed with a good many others *he* becomes mixed too, and has to do a good deal of careful listening and thinking before he can straighten things out.

The Akoulalion reveals very distinctly the difference between a bad *k* and a good one.

APRIL 1, 1902.

boots

overcoat

stockings

collar

pocket

necktie

cuff

APRIL 8, 1902.

“I got a pocket kodak and put it into the closet.”

“A canny canner cried to his exceedingly canny granny,

‘ If a canner can can a can, can a canner can a can?’ ”

“No news now nor no news never.”

“Peter Piper,” etc.

“ She sells sea-shells; can she sell sea-shells? ”

These selections, and others of a like nature, were used during this and several succeeding lessons in several ways. First Creighton listened to one of them repeated several times, then to another, then to both alternately. Next he said them himself into his own receiver and lis-

tened to them, trying to contrast his own voice with mine. Then a third one was taken up in the same way and used with the other two, and so on. On succeeding days the lesson was begun by one of these being selected at random, listened to, and identified. Creighton was not very successful in this; he said himself that clever guessing had more to do with his correct answers than hearing. Always, after a little practice for the purpose of refreshing his memory, he could feel pretty sure, but seldom at first.

APRIL 10, 1902.

Everything pretty poor.

APRIL 11, 1902.

<i>clock</i>	<i>watch</i>
<i>time</i>	<i>night</i>
<i>electric</i>	

APRIL 14, 1902.

Moose caught from the Ak* without warning of any kind.

Three minutes of listening to ordinary speech.

APRIL 17, 1902.

<i>man</i>	<i>baby</i>
<i>woman</i>	<i>brother</i>
<i>boy</i>	<i>sister</i>
<i>girl</i>	

APRIL 22, 1902.

Creighton and I went down to see the Akouphone at the Thorndike. He found he could hear with this instrument much as he could with the Akoulalion; he said that so far as he could judge "without the means of immediate comparison," the sounds were precisely the same.

*The family name for the Akoulalion.

APRIL 23, 1902.

An effort to understand and analyze.

mouse, house, louse.

Creighton could not tell them at first without a good deal of trouble, but succeeded at last in distinguishing them very readily. We worked again on words beginning with a vowel or an *h*, and he can certainly distinguish the *h* every time.

*orse**horse**ouse**house**oh**ho**ah**ha**you**hew*

* * * * *

MAY 13, 1902.

We have been reviewing. Some days our luck has been good and sometimes the reverse. If Creighton knows the group he can generally tell the word, but without that help it is still difficult.

MAY 14, 1902.

We reviewed a good many words successfully, but almost always in groups.

I tried "*moose*" suddenly, and Creighton knew it; when I said it was "funny" he should be so sure of that particular word, he said, "We are likely to remember better anything we have worked out for ourselves." So we immediately tried some combinations or words to work out, and succeeded with the following.

*goose**goat**scow**shoot*

There are no more entries in the diary after this. The remaining lessons were either review or articulation lessons helped out by listening at the Akoulalion.

RESULTS.

Teacher and family agree that the results are less than they hoped for, and their hopes were by no means dazzling. The very utmost they allowed themselves to dream of was a marked improvement in the boy's speech, with a slight approximation to the normal, such an approximation as many pupils with a small degree of hearing attain to easily. The improvement came, but not the change of tone, except occasionally while a lesson was in progress. The improvement was very noticeable for a time, then as the instrument became an old story it seemed to the family to dwindle away; but old friends who met Creighton this summer for the first time in two years declared that they found a great improvement in intelligibility; and intercourse with strangers seemed to be easier than it had ever been before. How much of this improvement is due to the Akoulalion, and how much to added years and to the cumulative effect of many lessons in articulation given by an expert (not the writer of this paper), is, of course, an open question.

The proprietors of the Akoulalion claim better results for similar cases. They say that with Creighton's degree of hearing (reported as *nil* by the aurists) there is no reason why with faithful work and proper teaching he should not attain to almost normal speech and to hearing which could be reached by ordinary speech by means of the Akouphone. The present meagre results are, in their opinion, due to inattention on the boy's part, lack of expert teaching, and the fewness of the lessons so far given.

All three of these difficulties no doubt exist; the boy has been inattentive many times. No expert teacher of the Akoulalion was procurable or even known to exist, and the number of periods, called by courtesy in these pages "lessons," have been lamentably few. It has therefore been determined to give the instrument another year of trial to

which will be brought the experience gained during the year that has passed.

The writer's own belief in regard to the Akoulalion may be summed up as follows: She believes that in the case of a child with Creighton's degree of hearing (hearing which in her opinion does exist, the doctors to the contrary notwithstanding), if two short periods of practice could be given every day for a year, one in the morning and one in the afternoon, at the end of the year a small vocabulary could be recognized with certainty through the instrument. She believes these periods of practice would have a beneficial reaction upon the pupil's accuracy of pronunciation, and to some extent upon his emphasis and manner of speech, but as yet she has found no reason to hope for any modification or change in tone quality.

There is a little more to be added by way of general discussion. It seems not unlikely that the sounds which reach the deaf through the Akoulalion are somewhat similar to those heard through the receiver of a long-distance telephone. Such tones are often spoken of as "natural," but to a hearer, entirely unfamiliar with the human voice, they would hardly convey much idea of natural human speech. If the Norwegian invention which really does convey the sounds of the human voice unaltered can be successfully applied to the Akoulalion, perhaps perfectly natural speech will become actually attainable.*

Theoretically, if a child can hear something through an instrument, if he can not only hear but distinguish one sound from another, there is no apparent reason why he should not learn to hear all the sounds in the language, learn to recognize them in combination, and at last learn to understand readily ordinary human speech when con-

*A friend who was present at a demonstration of this invention reported himself as unable to distinguish between a human speaker and the instrument, when both were out of sight.

veyed to his ear by means of the instrument. All this appears very simple and easily demonstrable. But every teacher of the deaf knows better. The comprehension of speech, whether by eye or ear, comes only after long years of listening to it or seeing it. The absence of the involuntary practice which the hearing world obtains gratuitously constitutes a tremendous handicap to the deaf in the process of acquiring speech through the sight, a handicap which the schools for the deaf strive to lessen by every means in their power. When, however, as in the case of acquiring a knowledge of speech through the Akoulalion, time, place, the exclusive attention of a teacher, and incapacitating physical weariness at the end of a few minutes, must all be reckoned with, the opportunities for practice occurring in an ordinary life become so few as to bear little analogy to the processes by which hearing children acquire speech.

The readers of the *Annals* must forgive the incoherency of this paper. The experiment here recorded was begun in hope, and the small degree of success has been a bitter disappointment, so bitter that calm judicial discussion of the subject is beyond the writer's power.

MABEL ELLERY ADAMS,

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NOTES ON LANGUAGE TEACHING.*—II.

VOCABULARY.

IN the teaching of language we are concerned with the advancement of the pupil's knowledge in the three directions of vocabulary, syntax, and etymology. The papers on language work read at our conventions and those appearing constantly in the *Annals* and other organs of the profession deal almost wholly with the problem of how to

*Continued from the *Annals* for March, 1902, vol. xlvii, page 143.

develop a sound knowledge of syntax and etymology. Unquestionably this is the most difficult question that teachers of the deaf have to consider, but it will not do on this account to ignore or pay but slight attention to the principles that should govern the selection and methods of developing the vocabulary of our pupils.

I have known a highly educated teacher of long experience to teach lists of words selected in order from the dictionary, beginning with the letter *a* and passing on to the other letters of the alphabet, not getting beyond the letter *f* in the course of a year. That there could be no association of thought running through each daily lesson of an hour, or that pupils must soon lose interest in the attempt to remember a series of totally disconnected and unrelated words and illustrative sentences, apparently did not occur to him.

Such a case is extreme, of course, and would have but few parallels. But somewhat the same sort of disregard of principles is observable in the work of some teachers who have not given serious thought to the subject, and also in that of teachers who strongly advocate the "natural method" and are disposed to teach language about anything and everything that may catch the eye of the class for the moment. The result is a very irregular and hazy knowledge of words, because of the impossibility of keeping a complete and accurate record of such work and reviewing it regularly, and also because words are not taught according to their relative frequency of usage, intelligibility, and probable value to the child, or not in a strongly associated series of thoughts that may be easily remembered.

Nothing is more absolutely essential in the teaching of language than the *endless repetition* of words partly understood until perfectly understood, and of names once observed until firmly fixed in the memory. At every stage

of our work this fact confronts us, and without full and constant recognition of it much of our teaching will be utterly futile. It is also of great importance that we fully recognize the subserviency of words to thought, the constant dependence of the meaning and force of a word upon its context and position in the sentence, and that we therefore teach words only as they occur in connected language. Thus only may we lead pupils to realize the possible variability in the meaning of words, and, by slow degrees, to some vague appreciation of the ceaseless transformation or re-application of word meanings by metaphorical usage.

To accomplish this necessary repetition of words in connected language, in the main comprehensible to the pupil, we must depend either upon conversation or reading, or both, in varying proportions. As the hearing child depends at first wholly upon conversation, but later acquires and perfects the greater part of its vocabulary by reading, so does the deaf child, except that written or spelled conversation largely supplements what may be crudely and painfully spoken or read from the lips. The slowness and difficulty of these means of communication, the fact that the child can receive but one-tenth or one-fifteenth of the teacher's attention for less than five hours a day for three-fourths of the year, render the task of insuring sufficient repetition extremely difficult under the most perfect conditions. When, therefore, pupils depend upon signs for the expression of nine-tenths of their conversation to their schoolmates and even to their teachers, and the teacher fails to use *English* at every opportunity, to keep his or her work thoroughly systematized, to explain all new words in primary work as they occur, and constantly and carefully review these words, it is little wonder that results are so often far from satisfactory.

To follow nature's method, to give free range to the

child's spontaneous interests rather than strive to control and direct and concentrate these interests, we must be able exactly to duplicate the conditions of nature. Certain plants depend wholly upon bees and other such insects to distribute their pollen and insure fruitage, so that however perfect the artificial conditions of heat, light, moisture, and soil may be, and however perfect the growth and flowering, no fruit will follow unless bees also are kept in the greenhouse. So in all of nature's processes, oversight of a single important condition, out of dozens perhaps, means failure on our part to accomplish her results artificially. In trying to teach the deaf by natural methods we must clearly recognize the utter impossibility of approximating the degree of repetition of words which the hearing child constantly enjoys. To offset this difficulty it becomes of the utmost importance to avoid presenting too many new forms and words before the proper assimilation of those previously taught, to teach first and *thoroughly* the most useful and essential terms of thought, and to use spoken or spelled English in and out of the schoolroom to the greatest possible extent.

If we compare the number of graduates with the number of beginners year by year, it is easy to see that a majority of the pupils in our State institutions fail to graduate, and of the graduates a large proportion are semi-mutes. It seems to me that special care should be taken in the selection and development of the vocabulary of the large class of slow congenitally deaf pupils who do not and often cannot graduate, who usually never learn to read intelligently and thus teach themselves, and therefore most of all need our help. Time and again I have observed such pupils faithfully memorizing the political geography of Asia or Africa without being able to name a half dozen of the commonest kitchen utensils. I have known pupils to be zealously studying the products of foreign countries without

being able to name the vegetables growing in the institution garden, and others in physiology being urged to memorize the numerous Latin names of the bones and muscles of the body while they could not name the parts of a tree or of the kitchen stove. It is well enough to follow the common-school course of study when pupils are prepared for it, but surely not to the length of absurdity indicated by the above illustrations, which might be multiplied almost indefinitely.

It certainly seems reasonable that the more concrete, constantly used, and easily taught vocabulary of the household, garden, and farm, of sickness, dress, barter, travel, etc., should be taught at least fairly well before the slow, plodding deaf child is put into the study of advanced geography, technical physiology, and the condensed history of distant ages. The text-books used necessarily assume such knowledge on the part of the pupil, and are therefore so difficult or impossible of comprehension that slow pupils are apt either to lose all interest in the study or else resort to memorizing the text-book language bodily, whether they grasp its meaning or not. It can hardly be claimed that a class which cannot, for instance, enjoy reading, or take in newspaper items or the stories of Arabian Nights, will have any practical use for or need of a vague knowledge of ancient English history, of the technical terms of physiology, or of the boundaries, capitals, products, and surface variations of every country on the globe.

Recurring again to the all-important principle of the constant repetition of new words and language forms, first by conversation, but finally and chiefly through the reading habit, would it not be wiser to concentrate more time and attention upon the effort to develop this habit, and to this end delay the memorizing of universal geography and all technical text-book treatment of grammar, physiology, physics, and condensed comprehensive summaries

of American and English history, until we have positive proof of the ability of our pupils to read such stories as the Arabian Nights or Swiss Family Robinson with pleasure and comprehension?

Unquestionably if we can only give the ability to read, afford the opportunity for and instil the habit of reading simple story books and children's papers intelligently and voluntarily, we may be certain that the pupil's vocabulary will gain rapidly in accuracy and extent, and that they will soon be able to advance in the studies above mentioned with at least twice the rapidity otherwise possible. In other words, the two final years of school life will show much better results than four years of work where slow pupils have plunged into text-books in which the language and range of ideas were utterly beyond their powers of ready comprehension.

Certain it is that unless we do teach the deaf child to read with pleasure and intelligence, a ready vocabulary, a mastery of the principal peculiarities of idiom and syntax, some slight appreciation of the simpler forms of figurative language, become absolutely impossible, and his literate education largely a failure. Therefore, reading under the eye of the teacher and with his constant assistance and encouragement should be begun as early as possible in the course and continued until graduation. Experience teaches that to leave the average pupil to his own resources with the little time at his disposal, the numerous distractions to be ignored, and the innumerable difficulties of idiom and syntax to be encountered, means almost certain failure. Nor is it enough in the great majority of cases to select a suitable book and put it in his hands with instructions to read. At first the book should be read slowly chapter by chapter by the whole class while the teacher explains numerous words, brings out the points of the story by a question here or an anecdote there, and leads in a constant

discussion of the story as the class proceeds. The cheapness, variety, and excellence of the texts now available render this plan of work entirely feasible.

It may be claimed that the time required for a class to do much reading in this way cannot be spared from the prosecution of the regular course of common-school studies. Here the question again arises, can satisfactory results in these studies be obtained with pupils who have never been taught to read any sort of book with pleasure? The answer I always get from examination papers is that they can memorize an astonishing amount of information, which they cannot express in original language, which they have not properly assimilated, and which is soon forgotten or lost in a maze of vague, mixed, indistinct recollections of little or no practical value. The extremely bright and industrious may learn to read of themselves, but the lazy, the ne'er-do-weels, the scatter-brain talkers of the class, who most of all need the steady increase of vocabulary and the fixation of word associations and forms of syntax by the limitless repetition only possible to the deaf through reading, simply sink deeper in the mire of misconception when pushed on from geography to physiology, and then into natural philosophy, physical geography, technical grammar, and English history, without having learned to enjoy reading or take in simple story books of any kind.

But, as I have said in a previous paragraph, many are the pupils who never graduate, for whom the intelligent reading of books is an impossibility, and who go out of our schools barely able to express their simplest ideas intelligibly. Nearly all that such pupils get must come from the teacher, who should map out his work, define its limits, and adapt his teaching accordingly.

First as to limits. The language taught should be almost wholly objective, subjective only in so far as is necessary for the expression of the child's ordinary feelings and

desires, and not at all figurative. Since an accurate sense of time distinctions is essential to a correct use of the verb, the definite and indefinite time expressions should be carefully taught and constantly emphasized in daily conversation.

The teaching of the vocabulary of home life, of the weather, health, bargaining, and of the commonest forms of manual labor, etc., should at least precede the teaching of the vocabulary of political geography, colony settlement, war, governmental changes, etc. A class should be able to describe a table or a room or a person before being required to describe the surface of Asia or the course of the Congo; they should be able to express themselves properly when buying a nickel's worth of candy or asking pay for a day's labor, before being asked to memorize the exact census figures of the population of every State in the Union. Without multiplying illustrations, which would appear extreme but for observation notes to the contrary, it is clear that a teacher must realize very forcibly the limitations of the average deaf child and observe very closely in order to keep his work accurately adjusted to the needs of his class.

It is best, of course, to teach the vocabulary above outlined in a variety of ways, by conversation, reproduction of stories, writing from action work, etc. For the teaching of verbs especially one of the best methods is that of Gouin, described at length in his book on "The Art of Teaching and Learning Languages," and also discussed in the *Annals* by Miss Hull as "The Psychological Method."* It enables us to preserve a natural association of thought through each lesson, affords ample opportunity for the requisite repetition and review, and is a logical step beyond the

*See the *Annals*, vol. xliii, pp. 190-196. A fuller exposition and discussion of the Gouin Method, by Mr. J. L. Smith and Mr. E. E. Clippinger, may be found in the *Annals*, vol. xxxviii, pp. 177-189.

action-work methods so universally commended for primary work by the ablest teachers of the profession. By using a definite adverb of time and the name of a particular person as subject throughout a sentence series, then changing to an indefinite adverb of time and an indefinite pronoun, we may distinguish sharply between the universal present and particular periods of time in the past, present, or future, and thus emphasize a distinction difficult for the average deaf child to grasp. In this way we may review the new words in a series while constantly changing its outward form and drilling upon the tenses of the verb. The greatest interest and enthusiasm will be evoked if the teacher, having mastered the method, will build up the sentence series in the presence of the class, allowing different pupils to suggest and name as far as possible the several simple steps involved in the complex act described. They will almost invariably overlook many of the steps, and the effort to think of them all in proper succession constitutes a fine exercise in accurate thinking.

For the teaching of nouns particularly, lessons on classification and definition afford unlimited opportunity, together with excellent mental training, preparatory to the taking up of studies in which definitions are numerous. All careful thinking begins with classification. Thus language itself develops, and every department of science is built up. Composition work and progress in all advanced studies is greatly facilitated by some previous training in the construction, analysis, and criticism of definitions of common things.

To this end it is well to begin by practicing pupils in the classification of all sorts of common objects, care being taken of course not to pass too rapidly from the easy to the more difficult. For instance, we may ask to what class of things a chair, a hat, an eagle, a fly, a buggy, a hammer, etc., belong, and later on in the course lead up to

the classification of love and fear as emotions, of the sun and moon as heavenly bodies, of steam and electricity as motive powers, etc., etc. As we proceed there is evidently endless opportunity for the teaching of new names, yet not in a hap-hazard way, but logically associated in groups, according certain distinguishing characteristics of the things named. This association helps very materially to strengthen the pupil's grasp of the full significance of class names. To a primary class the word *tool* will stand for a very clear idea after some twenty things have been classified as tools; so in the ascending scale more abstract terms will be made equally clear by this method of presentation.

After much practice in naming the classes to which things belong, we may begin to call also for a few of the principal characteristics or qualities which distinguish a particular object from others of its class. This is a much more difficult step than that of general classification; therefore the subject-matter of each lesson must be very carefully selected. The original idea of gradually leading the pupil to a fair understanding of how to construct a definition should be kept clearly in mind, and the work be strictly limited to the consideration of very simple concepts or of important concepts in the various studies to be taken up. In the course of time pupils may be led to observe that tools and instrumentalities of all kinds are usually distinguished by their uses; men most often according to their occupations, but frequently according to character, race, or relationship; inanimate objects in nature according to their specific qualities, etc. If a taxidermist's collection is at hand, or even if the teacher has an abundance of bird pictures and can draw fairly well, pupils will readily learn to distinguish birds into waders, swimmers, and runners, seed-eating birds, insect-eating birds, and birds of prey. More advanced pupils may be given occasional

lessons in distinguishing soils according to their texture, composition, and fertility; rocks according to their crystallization, hardness, weight, color, etc.

Such exercises compel a class to think, observe, and compare; they enable the teacher to present a great deal of objective language to a class and grade it accurately to suit their needs and ability; and they are invaluable as a preparation for formal composition writing. Brief lessons may be given as to what are various tools, machines, vehicles, buildings, fruits, vegetables, grains, foods, ceremonies, medicines, animals, implements, utensils, metals, etc.

In action work, story lessons of all kinds, and in the study of history and to a great extent geography, there is an endless series of questions as to how, when, where, and why; for answer the pupil must depend upon the authority of the book and his memory. Is it not wise to begin as soon as pupils have sufficient mental development the presentation of a parallel endless series of questions as to the what of this, that, and the other object? This question calls for generalization from direct observation and for thinking of the highest order of practical utility. Though it very properly comes last it should surely receive much earlier, more systematic, and more constant emphasis than is to be found in the mere formal definitions of geography, physiology, physics, etc. To know the when, where, how and why, of acts and processes, and the what of objects, completes the sum of human knowledge. No pupil has been trained to think who has not been taught to ask himself these questions constantly, especially the last. Therefore the importance of emphasizing this through the latter part of the school course, and in its use beginning with objects of the greatest familiarity to the pupil. Thus only can he be carefully trained in the synthetic process of thought necessary in all efforts to classify, and so constantly called for in all advanced study.

To sum up conclusions briefly: Without an early and ceaseless emphasis, first upon the spelling habit in conversation, then upon the reading habit, no satisfactory development of vocabulary is possible. No rapid and general development of vocabulary should be attempted until pupils have a fairly accurate knowledge of sentence forms and structure. This principle is too often violated by plunging pupils into the routine study of common-school text-books before they can read them intelligently. As supplementary to the usual modes of developing vocabulary by journal writing, story lessons, action work, and picture description, the Gouin analytic method of writing series of sentences, and also systematic lessons in the classification and definition of common things, are strongly recommended.

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A CASE OF HYSTERICAL DEAF-MUTISM.*

IN this degenerate age when the human frame is the prey to so many diseases, the predisposition to which, or the direct cause of which, is clearly traceable to the forces or influences of civilization, the nervous system is perhaps the greatest sufferer. Few, if any, organs of the body are exempt from those manifold and varied symptoms attributable to disease or functional derangement of that great governing power of the human system. The organs of special sense are not the least rarely affected, but seldom by functional disturbances alone in such degree as to cause great distress or threat of permanent loss of power in the affected organ. The case which forms the subject of this report came under my observation less than a year ago,

*From the *Laryngoscope*, vol. ix, No. 5.

and illustrates how profoundly the functions of the special organs may be affected by even slight impressions made upon the nervous system by external influences.

In the latter part of October, 1899, Alfred M., a young man twenty-three years of age, was brought to the clinic of the Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat Hospital in a condition of complete deaf-mutism, with the following peculiar history: The patient is a carpenter by trade, of healthy parentage, and had himself always enjoyed fairly good health previous to this affliction for which he sought relief; is of more than ordinary intelligence, and able to read and write with ease. Though small in stature, he is of strong robust appearance, and, aside from an occasional tendency to despondent moods, gave no history or evidence of a nervous temperament. He had led a rather dissipated life up to a year ago when he concluded to settle down and give up his wild habits. A native of New Orleans, he had for the past few months been engaged in work in the vicinity of Bowie, La. Six days before coming to me, he attended a party where the so-called "spirit rappings," etc., were being tried as an amusement, and being somewhat of an amateur himself at playing the rôle of the "spirit medium," he became deeply interested in what was being done. Some one of the party suggested that the "invisible spirit" be called upon to cause the patient to write something on a piece of paper; accordingly he was given pencil and paper and seated at a table to do the "spirit's" bidding. He was visibly affected by the suggestion and, becoming nervous and frightened, refused to enter further into the sport. A short while later, feeling rather excited by his experience, he walked home and threw himself upon a bed to rest. Thinking him to be asleep some one of the household attempted to arouse him, when it was discovered that he was not merely asleep, but in an unconscious condition. A physician was called who soon succeeded in restoring him

to consciousness, but from that moment he was completely deaf and unable to utter a word. He had perfect control of his other faculties and communicated with those around him by writing. This condition persisted without change up to the time of his entrance into the hospital, and in the meantime every effort had been made to induce him to speak and hear, but without avail. The patient had grown despondent over his condition and feared that he would never recover.

Upon learning the history of the affection I was sufficiently convinced at once that the case was one of functional nature and that no organic lesion existed; nevertheless, I made a thorough examination of his physical condition with the following negative result: The auditory canals were clear of accumulated secretion, the tympanic membrane normal in appearance and sensitive to touch, nose and pharynx in good condition; laryngeal mucosa normal in aspect, but the vocal cords responded languidly to efforts at phonation, and would quickly fall apart after the first adductor movement, before they could be made to vibrate to the expired air—the typical aspect, in fact, of the larynx of nervous aphonia. The sensibility was normal. When commanded in writing to speak he would make strenuous efforts, but the lips and tongue failed to act and the larynx to give forth a sound of the voice. Aside from being able to cough and to emit a grunting sound when amused, he could utter no sound. The hearing was tested with every means at my command and he showed no evidence of perceiving any sound. The case was clearly not one of simulating deafness and aphonia, but a true loss of the function of hearing and the power of speech.

I suggested to those around that the case would probably respond to the hypnotic treatment if we could succeed in getting him under the influence, whereupon Drs. Dupuy and Murray, of the resident corps, volunteered to try their

powers on him. Both succeeded readily in inducing hypnotic sleep, but beyond this could exercise no practical control over him. Being unable to hear the commands or suggestions, he could only be influenced by the force of telepathy. This succeeded so far as to cause him to make a slight movement of the lips in an endeavor to speak, but no sound was emitted and the deafness remained complete. Not wishing to depress the patient more by prolonging the seance, I decided to resort to the use of electricity, hoping that by producing a strong unexpected shock I might induce the man suddenly to give vent to his feelings in words, and possibly at the same time to stimulate the dormant auditory nerves to some perception of sound. Two electrodes were prepared, and with one placed upon each mastoid process, a rather strong galvanic current was turned on. The patient was startled by the shock but did not exclaim. This was repeated several times until it caused headache and dizziness and had to be stopped. The faradic current was tried with the same result.

In spite of these failures I endeavored to reassure the patient that he would recover his voice and hearing if he would only have courage and assist us in our efforts to cure him. This he promised to do, and consented to remain in the hospital where he could be kept under close observation. On the following day I repeated the examination of the day before and the tests of hearing; no change was revealed. I again resorted to electricity, using a milder galvanic current with small electrodes placed in the auditory canals. This caused vertigo and gave no relief. He grew tired of the confinement in the hospital and asked to be permitted to go to his home in Carrollton to return the following morning for further treatment. This he did, and upon his return he was subjected to another hypnotic seance, this time by an expert hypnotist whom I had summoned to see the case.

Further than thoroughly hypnotizing the patient and influencing him through telepathy to move his lips and his arms slightly, his efforts were of little avail. He did succeed, by suggesting to the patient before inducing hypnosis that he would hear, in producing a subjective sensation of ringing in the ears, of which the patient complained on being aroused. This was only temporary and no change at all could be detected in the deafness. The hypnotist confessed that the stumbling-block was the patient's inability to hear and hence be governed by his words of command during the sleep.

In search of other resources, I presented the patient before the Orleans Parish Medical Society and solicited examination of the patient and suggestions as to further treatment.

On the following Monday, two days later, the man returned to the hospital, his condition unchanged, excepting that he had grown more despondent and required a deal of encouragement. Having observed that he made some effort to speak when told to do so, I insisted on his persevering in this line. I sat down with him, and, beginning with the pronunciation of his name, which I insisted that he should attempt, I had him make repeated efforts until finally he succeeded in emitting a drawling sound suggestive of his name. By persistent efforts he improved in this and went further in attempting to articulate other words and sentences written for him on a sheet of paper. Within an hour's time he had made considerable progress and could then speak his own name and a few other words distinctly enough to be understood, but spoke in slow drawling tones and with much difficulty. Upon his leaving the clinic I instructed him to persevere in his efforts and try to answer in words when anyone addressed him, instead of depending altogether on his pencil and writing pad which he always had ready. He went home and on the next

morning walked into the clinic and said to me: "Good morning, doctor; you see I can talk at last, but I am still deaf." In fact, he had recovered full power of speech and retained his absolute deafness. He felt very much encouraged by his ability to talk, but still much concerned about the recovery of his hearing. I instructed him to report to me at our office in the afternoon of that day and I would see what else could be done for him, intending to get a clearer history from him since he could talk to me. When he came to me I had decided to try the effect of auditory exercise, and for this purpose had two appliances at my disposal—the Houghton electric masseur and a long cylindrical ear trumpet known as the conversation tube.

The former instrument is an electric vibrator, so constructed that when the conductors are applied to the ears a loud buzzing sound is heard. This I made him use for fifteen minutes, and although he could not distinguish the sound of the instrument, he soon after stated that he had a subjective ringing in the ears.

The conversation tube was then presented to him and I tried the effect of crying into it very loudly as he held it to his left ear. He started slightly at the first attempt, but explained that he heard no sound, but felt the force of the vibrations on the ear. This trumpet, I must explain, intensifies sound very much, and to the normal ear the lowest sounds when conveyed through it are loud and distinct. In using it on subjects who were completely deaf I have noticed that they complained of feeling the force of loud sounds without perceiving the sound. After repeating the experiment several times on the same ear, the patient said that he was beginning to hear a sound but could not understand what I said. Continuing, the deafness gradually cleared away as a mist until, at the end of half an hour, he could hear and understand a whisper in the left ear across the room. His hearing had returned

in one ear, leaving the other still deaf, as I proved by careful tests. I had not used the ear trumpet in the right ear and no change took place in that organ. Being pressed for further time, I sent the patient home with a promise to try to relieve the other ear on the following day. The next day found him again at the office and in a very cheerful mood. The affected ear was subjected to the same treatment with the ear tube which had proved so happily effective in the left ear. The result was equally as satisfactory, and the patient left at the end of half an hour in normal condition. Ten days later I had the pleasure of bringing the patient again before the meeting of the Orleans Parish Society and demonstrating his complete recovery.

The case presented features of such unusual interest throughout that I have endeavored to record the complete history, giving in detail many minor points which ordinarily would appear superfluous, but which here serve to elucidate some important facts relative to the nature and treatment of such an affection.

Whereas it is not so rarely that we find cases of complete loss of the auditory function through nervous influences, and even more often cases in which the power of speech is suspended from a similar cause, yet to find these two phenomena combined in the same subject is extremely unusual, and well worthy of more than passing notice. Gradenigo, in an exhaustive article entitled "Some Auricular Manifestations of Hysteria," written in 1894, compiled a series of fifteen cases of nervous deaf-mutism reported by various authors. Later publications have brought to light eight more cases of a similar nature, which, with my own case, make a total of twenty-four. In a study of such of these cases as have been reported in detail we find many peculiar and interesting symptomatic manifestations, and a variety of causes producing the affection. The etiology of the majority of the published

cases is attributed, first, to a predisposing condition of hysteria, or of a nervous, emotional nature of the patient, the actual condition being brought on as the result of some severe shock to the nervous system, such as sudden fright, anger, sorrow, or physical pain. These various exciting causes, classed under the head of "Hystero-traumatism," are not found as a feature of every case. In the cases reported by Veis and Ransom two healthy men, nineteen and twenty-six years of age, respectively, without personal or hereditary history of hysteria, awoke one morning to find themselves deaf-mutes. Like my patient, they showed no other nervous phenomena, and were otherwise in perfect control of their mental and physical faculties. An instantaneous cure was effected in Veis's case by catheterization of the Eustachian tubes after ordinary suggestion had failed. In Ransom's case a strong faradic current applied to the larynx by means of an intra-laryngeal electrode brought about the desired result.

Other cases are attributable to that peculiar psychical phenomenon, auto-suggestion, and in this category is found an interesting observation by Lemoine, of Lille, in which a laborer, forty years of age, who for a year had been conscious of increasing deafness in one ear, became suddenly deaf and dumb after a violent fit of anger. He had sworn not to speak to anyone for an entire day, but it soon became apparent that he was really unable to speak a word. Anxiety about the condition of his ear and the dread of becoming deaf became the controlling thought, no doubt, in his depressed state of mind, with the result as observed. In this case hypnotism was the agent by which his hearing and voice were restored. Lemoine discovered the same obstacle to this form of treatment that was evident in my case, *i. e.*, the inability to command the patient on account of his absolute deafness. He succeeded, however, in imparting the suggestion to the patient in the following man-

ner: After inducing hypnosis with the aid of the rotating mirror, he closed the patient's auditory canals with his finger tips to create, so he said, an auto-suggestion relative to the hearing, and then suddenly withdrawing them, he cried, "Hear me!" At the third repetition of this the hearing began to return and rapidly became normal. He was then told that he could speak, which he did, and at the end of a hypnotic seance lasting barely a quarter of an hour he awoke in complete possession of his hearing and speech.

Occasionally hysterical aphonia and deafness are found in children, and it requires the utmost ingenuity in certain cases to recognize the true condition and effectively carry out the treatment.

Courtade recently recorded the observation of a little girl, aged three years and six months, who fell while running with a bottle in her hand and received a cut from the broken glass. The wound bled profusely for a moment and frightened the child severely, but after recovering from this no change took place in her demeanor until the next morning, when she was discovered to be deaf and dumb. The child was very irritable and petulant and treatment was difficult. A rigid treatment of the nervous system was instituted, however, consisting of cold baths, electricity, bromides, etc., but the deaf-mutism still remained obstinate at the end of six months. What the final result was, Courtade did not state.

That deaf-mutism of nervous origin, particularly in young children, can become permanent, I consider quite possible, and a case that has recently come under my observation has influenced me in this opinion. I am indebted to Dr. Dupaquier, of this city, for having referred the case to me, accompanied by a full history of the affection as described to him by the parents and the patient.

A young Italian woman, twenty-three years of age, had

at the age of eight years become suddenly deaf and dumb as the result of a severe nervous shock caused by witnessing an atrocious murder. According to the account given by the parents, the child was ill for several days following this incident, and during that time lost the power of speech and hearing. She was taken to see a number of specialists in Italy who examined her and pronounced her case as one of hysterical nature. Treatment was entirely ineffectual, however, and the child was subsequently sent to a deaf-mute institute, where she was educated thoroughly and taught lip reading and speech according to the modern methods in vogue at institutions of the kind. When she came to us fifteen years after the onset of the affection, a careful examination proved that she was deaf to every sound, and the voice was of that peculiar monotone adopted by the deaf who have been taught to speak. She was in perfect health in other respects and of a bright, cheerful disposition. Though somewhat skeptical of the case being one of nervous origin, I decided to try the effects of treatment directed towards a stimulation of the auditory centers by means of faradism, auditory massage, strychnia. In the course of a few weeks she had learned to distinguish the sound of a tuning-fork by cranial perception and to hear a loud clapper held close to the ear, and even the voice through the long conversation tube. Further than that I could not succeed in advancing her, and concluded that, even were the case one of nervous origin, time and disuse of the function had made the deafness permanent.

Fortunately such cases are rare in childhood. Aphonia is not unusual in children as the result of the reflex disturbance from intestinal parasites. In such instances expulsion of the worms will cure the aphonia. Deafness from this cause alone has not been recorded, to my knowledge.

These forms of hysteria in children have been studied at length by Charcot, Bourneville, Terrein, and others.

Many varied complications of symptoms may occur in hysteria and involve the special senses in various ways. Cartaz relates the history of a woman who awoke from a night's sleep to find that she was both deaf and blind. She was of a decidedly hysterical nature. Treatment by suggestion was even more difficult than in a case of deaf-mutism. The patient recovered her sight and hearing after the application of two strong magnates to the body, a treatment that was being vaunted at the time. The author questions the curative value of the magnates.

That complete functional deafness may exist without any other hysterical stigmata is a fact not to be denied, and it is sometimes difficult to distinguish these cases from true labyrinthine deafness or from simulated deafness. It is necessary to study the advent of the affection closely and also the general disposition of the patient. When searching for the exciting cause, when not apparent, we must not lose sight of the fact that the effects of hystero-traumatism are not always immediate. In the case I report, which I consider due to that cause, as also in the cases reported by Veis, Ransom, Courtade, and Cartaz, the deaf-mutism only came on some time after the exciting incident. If due to auto-suggestion, there may be no other exciting cause discoverable. I believe it quite possible that such cases can usually be cured through the agency of hypnotic suggestion, but such treatment should be undertaken cautiously and only by persons with some experience in that art. Charcot points out the serious effects that may result from hypnotism in persons hysterically inclined. Then again it is not always practicable, as in children of early age unable to understand the object of the procedure. Among the recorded cases few have been cured by the same method, but the general idea followed out is that of simple suggestion applied in various ways. Electricity has given excellent results when applied with an electrode in the

throat, but is not infallible. Generally the hearing and speech returned simultaneously under the same treatment; in my patient, when other means had failed to restore both functions, I was compelled to treat each separately and by different means.

I had hoped that the restoration of one function would be followed by spontaneous restoration of the other, but in this I was disappointed; for the deafness persisted after the power of speech returned, and hearing in one ear revived, while the other remained deaf until similarly treated. This I consider the remarkable feature of the case. As for the voice, I simply appealed strongly to the will power of the man, assuring him of his certain recovery and insisting that he should continue his efforts to speak. Directing his thoughts in this hopeful channel and gaining the consent of his will had the desired effect in rapidly restoring his power of speech.

I attribute the restoration of the hearing entirely to the effects of auditory massage or shock, independent of suggestion in any form or of other treatment. This is sufficiently proved by the fact that one ear at a time was treated by that method and responded quickly in each instance to the stimulus.

The effective instrument in my hands was the long conversation tube, which so intensified the sonorous vibrations conveyed to the auditory nerve through the natural conducting media in the middle ear, which remain intact in these cases, as to arouse the dormant nerve to activity. Any loud, sharp sound close to the ear frequently repeated would, I am convinced, have a similar effect upon an ear thus affected.

GORDON KING, M. D.,
*Acting Surgeon in charge of the Ear, Nose, and Throat
Department of the Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat Hospital,
New Orleans, Louisiana.*

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902.
A.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 American School for the Deaf	Hartford, Conn.....	1817	Job Williams, M. A., L. H. D., Principal.
2 New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	New York, N. Y. (a)	1818	Enoch Henry Currier, M. A., do.
3 Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.....	1820	A. L. E. Crouter, M. A., LL. D., Sup't.
4 Kentucky Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes.....	Danville, Boyle Co., Ky.....	1823	Augustus Rogers, M. A., Sup't.
5 Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Columbus, Ohio.....	1829	J. W. Jones, M. A., do.
6 Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Staunton, Va.....	1839	William A. Lowles, do.
7 Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf	Indianapolis, Ind.....	1844	Richard Otto Johnson, do.
8 Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School.....	Knoxville, Tenn.....	1845	Thomas L. Moses, do.
9 North Carolina Institution for Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.	Kaleigh, N. C.....	1845	John E. Ray, M. A., Principal.
10 Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Jacksonville, Ill.....	1846	J. W. C. Gordon, M. A., Ph. D., Sup't.
11 Georgia School for the Deaf	Cave Spring, Ga	1846	Wesley O. Connor, Principal.
12 South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind.....	Cedar Spring, S. C.....	1849	Newton F. Walker, Superintendent.
13 Missouri School for the Deaf	Fulton, Callaway Co., Mo.....	1851	Noble B. McKee, M. A., Ph. D., do.
14 Louisiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Baton Rouge, La.....	1851	John Jastremski, M. D., do.
15 Wisconsin School for the Deaf	Delavan, Walworth Co., Wis	1852	E. W. Walker, do.
16 Michigan School for the Deaf.....	Flint, Mich.....	1854	Francis D. Clarke, M. A., C. E., do.
17 Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Jackson, Miss.....	1854	J. R. Dobyns, M. A., do.
18 Iowa School for the Deaf.....	Council Bluffs, Iowa.....	1855	Henry W. Rothert, Superintendent.
19 Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum.....	Austin, Texas.....	1857	B. F. McNulty, Superintendent.
20 Columbia Institution for the Deaf.....	Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.....	1857	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
A. Kendall School for the Deaf.....do.....	1857	James Denison, M. A., Principal.
B. Gallaudet Collegedo.....	1864	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
21 Alabama School for the Deaf.	Talladega, Ala.....	1860	Joseph H. Johnson, M. A., Principal.
22 California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Berkeley, Alameda Co., Cal	1860	Warring Wilkinson, M. A., L. H. D., do.
23 Kansas School for the Deaf	Olathe, Johnson Co., Kansas	1861	Henry C. Hammond, M. A., Sup't.
24 Le Contoux St. Mary's Inst'n for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	Buffalo, N. Y. (225 1/2 Main St.)	1861	Sister Mary Anne Burke, Principal.
25 Minnesota School for the Deaf.....	Faribault, Rice Co., Minn	1863	James N. Tate, M. A., Sup't.
26 Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	New York, N. Y. (904-922 Lexington Av.)	1867	Elbert A. Gruver, M. A., Principal
27 Clarke School for the Deaf	Northampton, Mass.....	1867	Miss Caroline A. Yale, LL. D., Principal.
28 Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute	Little Rock, Ark.....	1867	Frank B. Yates, Superintendent.
29 Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Frederick City, Md	1868	Chas. W. Ely, M. A., Principal.

30	Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Omaha, Neb.....	1869	Reuben E. Stewart, M. A., Sup. & Prin.
31	St. Joseph's Institute for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.....	Fordham, N. Y. (b).....	1869	Miss Ellen E. Cloak, Superintendent.
32	West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Romney, Hampshire Co., W. Va.....	1870	James T. Rucker, Principal.
33	Myatic Oral School for the Deaf.....	Myatic, Conn.....	1870	Miss Alice H. Damon, B. A., Principal.
34	Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Salem, Oregon.....	1870	Thos. P. Clarke, Sup't.
35	Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf.....	Baltimore, Md. (649 W. Saratoga St.) ..	1872	{ Frederick D. Morrison, M. A., Sup't. { John F. Blodoe, M. A., Principal.
36	Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Colorado Springs, El Paso Co., Colo.....	1874	W. K. Argo, M. A., Sup't.
37	Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y.....	1875	Edward Beverly Nelson, M. A., Principal.
38	Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Edgewood Park, Allegheny Co., Pa.....	1876	William N. Burt, M. A., Ph. D., Prin.
39	Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Rochester, N. Y. (945 N. St. Paul St.)...	1876	Z. F. Westervelt, LL. D., Sup't & Prin.
40	Maine School for the Deaf.....	Portland, Me. (79-91 Spring St.)	1876	Miss Elizabeth R. Taylor, Principal.
41	Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf.....	Providence, R. I. (520 Hope St.)	1876	Miss Laura DeL. Richards, Principal.
42	New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Beverly, Mass.....	1879	Miss Nellie H. Swett, do.
43	South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Sioux Falls, Minnehaha Co., South Dak.	1880	James Simpson, Superintendent.
44	Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf.....	Scranton, Pa.....	1883	Miss Mary B. C. Brown, Principal.
45	New Jersey School for the Deaf.....	Trenton, N. J.....	1883	John P. Walker, M. A., Superintendent.
46	Utah State School for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind.....	Ogden, Utah.....	1884	Frank M. Driggs, Superintendent.
47	Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.....	Malone, Franklin Co., N. Y.....	1884	Edward C. Rider, Superintendent.
48	Florida Institute for the Deaf and the Blind.....	St. Augustine, Fla.	1885	William B. Hare, Superintendent.
49	New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf and the Dumb.....	Santa Fé, N. M.....	1885	Lars M. Larson, B. A., Superintendent.
50	State School for Defective Youth.....	Vancouver, Wash.....	1886	James Watson, Superintendent.
51	Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute for Colored Youth.....	Austin, Tex.....	1887	S. J. Jenkins, Superintendent.
52	Albany Home School for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf.....	Pine Hills, Albany, N. Y. (98 N. Pine Av.)	1889	Miss Mary McGuire, Prin. and Sup't.
53	Deaf and Dumb Asylum (of North Dakota)	Devils Lake, Ramsey Co., North Dak ..	1890	Dwight F. Bangs, Sup't.
54	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.....	Philadelphia, Pa. (c).....	1892	Miss Mary S. Garrett, Principal.
55	Montana School for Deaf and Blind.....	Boulder, Montana	1894	Thos. H. McAloney, Sup't.
56	North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Morganton, Burke Co., N. C.....	1894	E. McKay Goodwin, M. A., Sup't.
57	Oklahoma Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Guthrie, Oklahoma	1898	H. C. Beamer, Contractor and Sup't.
57	Public Schools (not including Day-Schools).			
50	Public Day-Schools. (See page 62.)			
16	Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 63.)			
123	Schools in the United States.			

(a) Washington Heights, West 163d Street and Broadway. (b) This Institution has three branches; one situated at West Chester, another at Fordham (772 East 188th Street), and another at Brooklyn (113 Buffalo Ave.). (c) Belmont Ave., cor. Monument Ave.

36	Institut'n for Imp'vd Inst'n.	Cab., Car., Ch., Cos., Drs., Dr., Ol., Pa., Se., Sh., Ta.	348	211	107	109	215	215	647	50	7	22	2	31
37	Clark School	Calo., Sc., Wc.	178	180	76	74	150	160	182	21	1	22	1	17
38	Arlan Institute	Art, Hk., Calo., Cal., Car., Co., Cg., Dr., Os., Sh., Pa., Pap., Pl., Pr., Pb., Tc., Wc.	275	255	134	96	46	40	690	24	9	15	3	4
39	Maryland School	Cab., Tr., Ch., Cl., Ch., Dr., Km., Ol., Pa., Fr., Sh., Wc., Wt.	121	86	65	43	60	69	524	16	6	10	4	5
40	Nebbraska Instituta	Art, Dr., Fa., Pl., Hor., Man., Fr., Me., Sh., Ty-	302	177	101	78	90	7	536	33	12	11	6	8
41	St. Joseph's Institute (N. Y.)	Art, Bask., Car., Ch., Dr., Fa., Fan., Ga., Ho., Pr., Sh., St., Tc., Wc., Wt.	963	376	200	176	376	376	1,260	52	7	45	6	16
42	West Virginia School	Cab., Car., Ch., Sh., Tc., Wc.	38	30	81	29	50	30	7	7	4	7	3	4
43	Myrtle Oral School	Art, Engr., Fm., Ho., Se., Wc.	71	65	25	26	28	22	145	9	4	2	3	4
44	Oregon School	Bas., Car., Fr., Mc.	60	45	35	37	15	16	307	16	4	2	1	4
45	Mid. School for Colored	Ch., Cl., Dr., Fan., Se., Sh.	125	87	62	37	65	69	397	16	9	3	7	4
46	Colorado School	Art Bask., Car., Ch., Dr., Fr., Se., Sh.	139	129	64	65	63	63	468	19	8	11	7	5
47	Central N. Y. Institution	Car., Dr., Ol., Fr., Se., Sh., Wc.	259	268	164	114	148	148	719	23	9	13	12	5
48	Western Penna. Institution	Cab., Car., Ch., Dr., Fr., Sh.	307	178	68	93	178	178	612	24	5	19	3	7
49	New York Inst'n	Art, Bsk., Cab., Car., Ch., Cl., Dra., Dr., Ga., Ho., Mail., Pa., Pr., Se., Sh., Wc.	101	66	87	86	87	87	214	16	1	15	1	10
50	Maine School	Car., Ch., Dr., Fr., Sh.	63	62	12	25	62	62	169	12	1	3	1	9
51	Rhode Island Institute	Fr., Se., Sl	43	32	11	16	16	16
52	N. E. Industrial School	Nonr.	31	27	12	15	15	15
53	North Dakota School (a)	Car., Fa., Fr.	64	47	23	44	23	44
54	Pennsylvania Oral School	Ch., Dr., Ho., Se., Sh., Ven., Wt.	186	81	73	81	81	81
55	New Jersey School	Car., Cp., Dr., Em., Hc., Kl., Fr., Sh., Sl., Wc.	144	136	81	186	87	87	456	15	2	13	8	9
56	Utah School	Bas., Bl., Cab., Car., Ch., Dr., Em., Ol., Ho., Pa., Pr., Se., Sh.	94	89	49	23	58	41	206	16	10	3	3	9
57	Northern New York Institution	Cab., Car., Dr., Fr., Sh., Ta.	87	77	43	34	55	29	211	14	3	11	..	10
58	Florida Institute	Car., Ho., Fr., Se.	67	65	36	29	54	25
59	New Mexico School	Car., Dr., Fr., Sh.	100	99	52	47	15
60	Washington State School	Dr., Su.	37	34	24	14	32
61	Texas Institute for Colored (a)	Cl., Se.	44	34	20	14	32	32	65	7	2	7
62	Iowa School	Ho., Car., Fr., Se.	67	61	28	16	32
63	Home for Training in Speech	Ho., Fan.	47	41	21	16	31	61	116	9	4	5	6	1
64	Month School	Fnd., Man., Pr., Se., Ty.	59	49	16	15	30	17	118	9	2	7	6	2
65	North Carolina School	Br., Car., Ch., Fa., Om., Ma., Fr., Sh.	263	242	123	111	113	113	428	27	9	18	4	12
66	Kansas Institute (a)	Note.	64	55	45	29	75	4	1	9
67	Public Schools		11, 091	9, 808	5, 407	4, 018	4, 018	5, 900	43, 574	1,096	431	755	292	513
68	Public Day-Schools (b)		753	753	403	381	746	697	1, 094	1, 5	4	119	4	102
69	Demon'l and Private Schools (c)		437	389	1-2	217	311	183	1, 667	69	12	57	9	80
70	Schools in the United States		12, 390	10, 932	5, 993	4, 970	7, 017	4, 898	45, 894	1,888	447	941	253	664

* See page 73
† A = number taught speech.
‡ Including the superintendent or principal and the teachers of industries.
(a) See page 74.
(b) See page 84.
(c) See page 88.
(d) See page 74.
(e) See page 88.

C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method.
C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Arithmetic method.
† Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries.

* See page 73

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902—Continued.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	Expenditure last fiscal year.	No. vols. in library.
				For support.	For build'gs.
1 American Asylum.....	Fri. before last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Endowment and N. E. States.....	\$325,000	2,000
2 New York Institution.....	Second Tuesday in June to third Wed. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	367,500	\$12,193	8,378
3 Pennsylvania do.....	Last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State endowment, and pay pupils.....	1,000,000	135,224	6,800
4 Kentucky..... do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	145,000	63,588	2,364
5 Ohio..... do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	850,000	94,796	3,000
6 Virginia..... do*	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	do.....	200,000	24,000	600
7 Indiana..... do.....	Second week in June to fourth week in Sept.	do.....	493,458	68,515	3,364
8 Tennessee School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Fri. in Sept.	do.....	200,000	34,000	1,000
9 North Carolina Institution*	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	56,000	18,000	1,050
10 Illinois Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	704,000	116,427	14,500
11 Georgia School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	85,000	27,388	1,200
12 South Carolina Institution*	Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.	State and pay pupils.....	93,000	1,040
13 Missouri School.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	333,000	54,400	2,550
14 Louisiana do.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	300,000	21,600	400
15 Wisconsin School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	115,000	37,000	3,000
16 Michigan..... do.....	Thurs. after June 7 to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	511,077	87,179	4,282
17 Mississippi Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to first Mon. in Oct.	do.....	70,000	22,035	1,166
18 Iowa School.....	June 30 to Oct. 1.....	do.....	150,000	62,000
19 Texas Asylum.....	Third Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	400,000	73,601	2,550
20 Columbia Institution.....	Wed. before last Wed. June to Thurs. before last Thurs. Sept.	United States and pay pupils.....	700,000	74,831	4,600
21 Alabama..... do.....	June 10 to Sept. 10	State.....	100,000	34,960	500
22 California..... do*	Second Wed. in June to fourth Wed. in August.....	do.....	500,000	54,579	2,576
23 Kansas..... do.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	250,000	48,090	3,040
24 Le Contoux St. Mary's Inst.....	Wed. before last week in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	234,000	41,094	830
25 Minnesota School.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	271,623	52,717	2,500
26 Inst. for Imp'v'd Ins'n.....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	213,716	64,390	976
27 Clarke School.....	Forty weeks after third Mon. in Sept. to third Mon. in Sept.	Endowment, N. E. States, and pay pupils.....	150,000	50,605	2,500

28	Arkansas Institute.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.....	State.....	250,000	41,925	\$2,000
29	Maryland School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	255,000	26,570	8,821	3,185
30	Nebraska Institute.....	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	200,000	1,500	1,500
31	St. Joseph's Institute (N. Y.).....	Last Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	810,000	111,218	6,096	2,050
32	West Virginia School.....	Forty weeks after second Wed. in Sept. to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....
33	Mystic Oral School.....	Twelve weeks.....	State and tuition fees.....
34	Oregon School.....	June 1 to Sept. 20.....	State and tuition fees.....	43,870	14,500	1,150	150
35	Md. School for Colored*.....	June 25 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	30,000	12,000	250
36	Colorado Institute*.....	First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	235,000	28,000	10,000	750
37	Central N. Y. Institution.....	Second week in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	State and counties.....	130,000	38,761	2,537	591
38	Western Penn'a Institution.....	Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and voluntary contributions.....	424,364	6,350	164,140	600
39	Western New York Institution.....	Forty-two w'ks after first Mon. in Sept. to first Mon. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	218,500	55,076	347	8,600
40	Maine School.....	Middle of June to second Mon. in Sept.....	State.....	30,000	17,500	2,500	600
41	Rhode Island Institute.....	Third Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.....	do.....	86,000	20,000	185
42	N. E. Industrial School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Tues. in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and States.....	16,000	4,500
43	South Dakota School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	35,000	12,250	250
44	Penna. Oral School.....	June 20 to Sept. 1.....	do.....	149,500	21,010	180
45	New Jersey School.....	June 16 to Sept. 10.....	do.....	125,000	37,000	3,000	2,800
46	Utah School*.....	First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and pay pupils.....	210,000	31,697	598	1,365
47	Northern N. Y. Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State and counties.....	104,000	23,763	14,678	710
48	Florida Institute*.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	State.....	15,000	10,979	4,813	75
49	New Mexico School.....
50	Washington State School*.....	Thurs. after last Wed. in May to last Wed. in Aug.....	State.....	100,000
51	Texas Institute for Colored*†.....	June 15 to Sept. 15.....	do.....	60,000	21,845	9,000	100
52	Albany Home School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State, counties, and pay pupils.....	9,043	70
53	North Dakota School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	20,000	14,180	4,832	400
54	Home for Training in Speech.....	None.....	State and pay pupils.....	67,618	18,503	76	683
55	Montana School*.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	100,000	17,898	1,800	150
56	North Carolina School.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	do.....	210,000	40,000	4,500	1,800
57	Oklahoma Institute*.....	July and August.....	Territory.....
57	Public Schools.....
50	Public Day-Schools. (See page 64.).....
16	Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 70.).....
128	Schools in the United States.....

* Contains a department for the blind also, the expenses of which are included in the statement of expenditures.

† For the year 1901.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902—Continued.
B.—PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of Opening	Chief Executive Officer.
1 Horace Mann School for the Deaf.....	Boston, Mass. (178 Newbury St.).....	1869	Miss Sarah Fuller, Principal.
2 Wicker Park Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	(Evergr'n Av. near Robey St.	1879 (a)	
3 Prescott Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Wrightw'd & Ashland Aves.	1879	
4 Yale Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 70th St. and Yale Ave.	1886	
5 Lynman Trumbull Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. Sedg'k & Division Sts.	1896	
6 Kozumski Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Cor. 54th St. & Ingleside Av.	1896	
7 Seward Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	4630 Gross Ave.	1897	Miss Mary McCowen, Sup'g Principal.
8 Darwin Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Edgewood Av & Catalpa Ct	1898	
9 Burr Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ash'd Av. & Wabasha St....	1898	
10 Froebel Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	21st St. near Robey St.....	1898	
11 Clarke Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ashland and W. at 13th St.	1901	
12 Dore Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Harrison, near Halstead St.	1901	
13 P. D. Armour Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Morgan St. and 33d Place...	1901	
14 Cincinnati Public School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, Ohio (719 W. Sixth St.).....	1875	Miss Caroline Freenbeck, Principal.
15 Gallaudet School.....	St. Louis, Mo. (c).....	1878	Jas. H. Cloud, M. A., Principal.
16 Milwaukee School for the Deaf.....	Milwaukee, Wis. (d).....	1885	Miss Frances Wettstein, Principal.
17 Oral School of Cincinnati.....	Cincinnati, Ohio (719 W. Sixth St.)	1886	Miss Virginia A. Osborn, Principal.
18 Wausau Day School for the Deaf.....	Wausau, Wis.	1890	Miss Margaret Hurley, Principal.
19 Cleveland Day School for the Deaf.....	Cleveland, Ohio (e)	1892	Miss Katharine E. Barry, Super'g Prin.
20 Shelbygan Day-School for the Deaf.....	Sheboygan, Wis.	1894	Miss H. Ray Kribs, Principal.
21 Detroit Day-School for the Deaf.....	Detroit, Mich. (f)	1894	Miss Elizabeth Van Adams, Principal.
22 Eau Claire Day-School for the Deaf.....	Eau Claire, Wis. (418 S. Barstow St.)..	1895	Miss Jennie C. Smith, Principal.
23 Fond du Lac Day-School for the Deaf.....	Fond du Lac, Wis.	1895	Miss Anna Sullivan, Principal.
24 Marinette Day-School for the Deaf.....	Marinette, Wis.	1895	Miss Jessie M. Daniels, Teacher.
25 Oakkosh School for the Deaf.....	Oakkosh, Wis. (Library building).....	1895	Miss Carrie H. Auchibald, Principal.
26 Appleton Day School for the Deaf.....	Appleton, Wis.	1896	Miss Hannah J. Gardner, Principal.
27 Green Bay Day-School for the Deaf.....	Green Bay, Wis.	1897	Miss M. Stella Flatley, Teacher.
28 Black River Falls School for the Deaf.....	Black River Falls, Wis.	1897	Miss Blanche E. Argyle, Principal.
29 Superior Day-School for the Deaf.....	West Superior, Wis.	1898	Miss Della C. Page, Principal.
30 Neillville Day-School for the Deaf.....	Neillville, Wis.	1897	Mrs. Elizabeth H. Irish, B. A., Teacher.
31 Los Angeles Oral School for the Deaf.....	Los Angeles, Cal.....	1898	Miss Mary E. Bennett, Principal.
32 Elyria School for the Deaf.....	Elyria, Lorain Co., Ohio.....	1898	Miss Harryette A. Maxted, Teacher.
33 Ashland Day-School for the Deaf.....	Ashland, Wis.....	1898	Miss Alice V. Robie, Principal.

34	Sparta Day-School for the Deaf.....	Sparta, Wis.....	1898	Miss Hulda Rudolph, Principal.
35	Stevens Point Day-School for the Deaf.....	Stevens Point, Wis.....	1898
36	Stratton Day-School for the Deaf.....	Stratton, Ill.....	1898	Miss Edith E. Brown, Teacher.
37	La Crosse Day-School for the Deaf.....	La Crosse, Wis.....	1899	Miss Lida J. Kline, Principal.
38	Dayton School for the Deaf.....	Dayton, O. (4th Dist. School, Hick'y St.)	1899	Miss Nannie C. Kennedy, Principal.
39	Oakland Oral Public Day-School for the Deaf.....	Oakland, Cal. (g).....	1899	Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan, Prin.
40	Grand Rapids Day-School for the Deaf.....	Grand Rapids, Mich.....	1899	Miss Margaret M. Sullivan, Principal.
41	Muskegon Day-School for the Deaf.....	Muskegon, Mich.....	1900	Miss Olga M. G. bhart, Teacher.
42	Menominee Day-School for the Deaf.....	Menominee, Mich.....	1900	Miss Olive Newlin, Teacher.
43	Rock Island Day-School for the Deaf.....	Rock Island, Ill. (h).....	1901	Miss Meta C. Wittig, Teacher.
44	Racine Day-School for the Deaf.....	Racine, Wis.....	1900	Miss Katharine Keating, Teacher.
45	San Francisco Day-School for the Deaf.....	San Francisco, Cal. (i).....	1901	Mrs. Jeanie B. Holden, Teacher.
46	Bay City Day-School for the Deaf.....	Bay City, Mich.....	1901	Miss Martha M. Hill, Teacher.
47	Saginaw Day-School for the Deaf.....	Saginaw, E. S., Mich.....	1901	Miss Clara E. Kraususch, Teacher.
48	Rhineland Day-School for the Deaf.....	Rhineland, Wis.....	1902	Miss Gusale H. Greener M. A., Teacher.
49	Galeana Day-School for the Deaf.....	Galeana, Ill.....	1902
50	Calumet Day-School for the Deaf.....	Calumet, Mich.....	1902	Miss Gertrude Van Adestine, Principal.
50	Public Day-Schools in the United States.			

(a) The first Public Day-School for the Deaf in Chicago was opened in 1875 in a rented building on Van Buren Street.

(d) Cor. Seventh and Prairie Streets. (e) 1304 Willson Avenue. (f) Wilkins School, Porter Street. (g) Lafayette School, 17th and West Streets.

(h) Irving School, 12th and 9th Streets. (i) Grove Street, near Larkin and City Hall.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902.—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught. (b)	NUMBER OF PUPILS					PERCENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS				
			PRESENT NOV. 10, 1902.					Total.				
			Within the year 1902.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Taught Speech.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Deaf.	Artistic.
					A.	B.	C.					
1 Horace Mann School.	Oral.	Art, Ch., Cl., Sa, St., and construction work.	148	125	60	65	151	17	17	17	1	14
2 Wicker Park School (a).	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	10	14	10	4	12	2	2	2	1	1
3 Prescott School (a).	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	8	7	4	3	7	1	1	1	1	1
4 Yale School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	40	48	24	24	38	4	4	4	1	1
5 Lyman Trumbull School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	20	18	9	9	18	1	1	1	1	1
6 Kozumaki School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	17	16	10	6	15	1	1	1	1	1
7 Seward School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	16	13	8	5	13	1	1	1	1	1
8 Burr School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	19	14	11	3	18	1	1	1	1	1
9 Burr School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	8	8	6	2	8	1	1	1	1	1
10 Froebel School (a).	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.	22	21	15	6	21	1	1	1	1	1
11 Clarke (Chicago) School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.
12 Dore School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.
13 P. D. Arthur School.	Oral.	Drawing and construction work.
14 Cincinnati Public School.	Manual.	Drawing and construction work.	7	6	6	1	7	1	1	1	1	1
15 Galvander School.	Combined.	Drawing and construction work.	45	38	20	18	37	1	1	1	1	1
16 Milwaukee School.	Oral.	Art, Ch., Cl., Pr., Sa, St., We.	62	67	30	37	57	10	10	10	1	1
17 Cincinnati Oral School.	Oral.	Man., We.	37	27	17	10	27	7	7	7	1	1
18 Wayman School.	Oral.	Drawing, Man.	5	5	3	2	5	1	1	1	1	1
19 Cleveland School.	Oral.	Man.	61	41	21	20	44	1	1	1	1	1
20 Sheboygan School.	Oral.	Manual training.	7	7	4	3	7	1	1	1	1	1
21 Detroit School.	Oral.	Man., Cl., Man., Pr., Sa, St.	49	30	14	16	29	1	1	1	1	1
22 East (a) School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	11	10	8	2	14	1	1	1	1	1
23 Fond du Lac School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	11	11	6	5	11	1	1	1	1	1
24 Marinette School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	6	6	4	2	6	1	1	1	1	1
25 Oakleaf School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	7	4	1	3	4	1	1	1	1	1
26 Appleton School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	7	6	4	2	6	1	1	1	1	1
27 Green Bay School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	7	4	3	1	4	1	1	1	1	1
28 Black River Falls School.	Oral.	Ch., Man., Pr.	9	9	6	3	9	1	1	1	1	1
29 Superior School.	Oral.	Sewing, III.	13	13	8	5	13	1	1	1	1	1

[illegible]

* See page 73.
 ** Including the pupils who have left during the year.
 † A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method.
 ‡ C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Auscultal method.
 § Including the principal and the teachers of industries.
 ¶ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries.
 (a) For the year 1901. (b) See page 74.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.		Vacation.	How Supported.
1 Horace Maun School.....		Last Tuesday in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State and City.
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7 Chicago Public Schools.....		July and August.....	State Common School Fund.
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14 Cincinnati Public School.....		June 23 to second Mon. in Sept.....	City.
15 Gallaudet School.....		Second Friday in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	City.
16 Milwaukee School.....		Last Fri. in June to first Mon. in Sept.....	State and City and County.
17 Cincinnati Oral School.....		June 20 to Sept. 8.....	City.
18 Wausau Oral School.....		June 18 to Sept. 8.....	State and City.
19 Cleveland School.....		June 15 to Sept. 15.....	City.
20 Sheboygan School.....		State and City.
21 Detroit School.....		Twelve weeks from June 21.....	State and City.
22 Ean Claire School.....		Sixteen weeks.....	State and City.
23 Fond du Lac School.....		June 1 to Sept. 9.....	State and City.
24 Marinette School.....		Last of June to first of Sept.....	State and City.
25 Oshkosh School.....		June 23 to Sept. 6.....	State and City.
26 Appleton School.....		June, July, August.....	State and City.
27 Green Bay School.....		June 26 to Sept. 2.....	State and City.
28 Black River Falls School.....		State and City.
29 Superior School.....		July and August.....	State and City.
30 Neillville School.....		June 10 to Sept. 10.....	State and City.
31 Los Angeles School.....		City and private subscription.

32	Elyria School.....	July to September.....	State and County.
33	Ashtabula School.....	June to September.....	State and City.
34	Sparta School.....	June 13 to September 4.....	State and City.
35	Stevens Point School.....	June 1 to September 1.....	State and City.
36	Streator School.....	June 26 to September 1.....	State and City.
37	La Crosse School.....	June 8 to Sept. 11.....	State and City.
38	Dayton School.....	July and August.....	State, County, and Parents' Association.
39	Oakland School.....	State and City.
40	Grand Rapids School.....	Begins June 22.....	State and City.
41	Muskegon School.....	Begins June 1.....	State and City.
42	Menominee School.....	June 6 to September 9.....	State and City.
43	Kock Island School.....	State and City.
44	Racine School.....	July 1 to August 1.....	City.
45	San Francisco School.....	Eleven weeks, ending second Monday in September.....	State and City.
46	Bay City School.....	State and City.
47	Saginaw School.....	Second Friday in June to first Monday in September.....	State and City.
48	Rhineland School.....	State and City.
49	Galena School.....	June 19 to September 3.....	State and City.
50	Calumet School.....	State and City.
—	Public Day-Schools in the United States.		
50			

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902—Continued.
C.--DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Name.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
1 Evangelical Lutheran Deaf-Mute Institute.....	North Detroit, Wayne Co., Mich.	1873	Rev. William Glelow, Superintendent.
2 St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute.....	St. Francis, Wis.	1876	Rev. M. M. Gerend, President.
3 F. Knapp's Institute.....	Baltimore, Md. (851 & 853 Hollins St.)...	1877	Wm. A. Knapp, Principal.
4 The McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children.....	Chicago, Ill. (6550 Yale Ave.).....	1883	Miss Cornelia D. Blugham, Head Teacher.
5 Ephpheta School for the Deaf.....	Chicago, Ill. (409 S. May St.).....	1884	Miss Margaret Cosgrove, Sup. and Prin.
6 Mater Consilii School for the Deaf.....	St. Louis, Mo. (1849 Cass Ave.).....	1885	Sister M. Adele, Principal.
7 The Sarah Fuller Home for Little Deaf Children.....	West Medford, Mass. (93 Woburn St.)...	1888	Miss Eliza L. Clark, Principal & Matron.
8 Notre Dame School for the Deaf.....	Cincinnati, O. (a).....	1890	Sister Mary of the Sacred Heart, Prin.
9 Deaf-Mute Institute of the Holy Rosary.....	Chinchuba, St. Tammany Parish, La.....	1896	Rev. G. Ruppert, Chaplain.
10 St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institute for Boys.....	Longwood Place, South St. Louis, Mo....	1893	Rev. Mother Agatha, Principal
11 Wright Oral School.....	New York, N. Y. (42 West 76th St.).....	1894	John Dutton Wright, M. A., Principal.
12 St. Joseph's Home for Deaf-Mutes.....	Oakland, Cal. (4002 Telegraph Ave.).....	1895	Sister M. Valeria, Principal.
13 St. Francis Xavier's School for the Deaf.....	Baltimore, Md. (901 McCulloh St.).....	1897	Mother M. Joseph Hartwell, Principal.
14 Boston School for the Deaf.....	Jamaica Plain, Mass. (9-11 St. Joseph St)...	1899	Thomas Magennis, Superintendent.
15 Evansville School for the Deaf.....	Evansville, Ind. (1422 W. Franklin St)...	1901	James E. Gallaher, Principal.
16 Washington Heights School for Children with Defective Hearing.....	Washington Heights, New York, N. Y. (b)	1901	{ Mrs. A. Reno Margulies, } Principals. { Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, }
16 Denominational and Private Schools in the United States.			

(a) Sixth Street, between Sycamore and Broadway. (b) 847 St. Nicholas Avenue.

Name.	Methods of Instruction. ^a	Industries Taught. (c)	With in- crease year 1902 to 1903	NUMBER OF PUPILS. PERMANENT NOV. 10, 1903.					PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.				
				Total	Male.	Female.	Taught Speech †			Total have re- ceived in- struction	Total ††	Male ††	Female ††
							A.	B.†	C.†				
1 Evangelical Lutheran Institution	Combined.	Car., Pa., W.C.	36	25	18	7	39	36	...	268	4	3	1
2 St. John's Catholic Institute	Combined.	None.	74	74	44	30	39	34	...	809	9	4	5
3 Mr. Knapp's Institute (a)	Oral.	Dr., Ho., Se., Bl.	32	32	22	10	31	23	6
4 McCowen Oral School (b)	Oral.	Dr., Dr., Se., We.	10	49	49	...	49	308	8
5 Epiphany School	Combined.	Dr., Pa., Fr., Ty.	29	34	34	...	30	5	...	400	6
6 Sister Connelly School	Combined.	None.	16	18	18	...	13	13	...	73	5
7 Sarah Fuller Home	Oral.	Se.	16	14	9	5	18	11	3	...	3
8 Notre Dame School	Combined.	Dr., Se.	87	4
9 Institute of the Holy Rosary	Combined.	Pa., Fr.	30	17	17	...	15	4
10 St. Joseph's Institute (Mo.)	Combined.	None.	26	17	8	9	17	17	...	61	9	3	6
11 Wright Oral School	Oral.	Art, Dr., Em.	37	35	15	20	13	4	2	46	4
12 St. Joseph's Institute (Cal.)	Combined.
13 St. Francis Xavier's School	Combined.
14 Boston School	Oral.	Ob., Se., Bl.	49	30	18	11	39	39	...	47	6	1	5
15 Evansville School	Combined.	None.	17	16	8	8	16	17	2	1	1
16 Washington Heights School	Oral and Aural	None.	16	14	8	6	14	4
17 Deacon and Private Schools.	427	369	172	117	311	186	4	1,637	69	12	57
18

^a See page 73. ^b Including the pupils who have left during the year. ^c A = number taught speech. ^d B = number taught a holly or chiefly by the Oral method. ^e C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Aural method. ^f Including the pupils and the teachers of industries. ^g Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. ^h This school also admits hearing pupils, but the statistics of only the deaf pupils and their instructors are here given. ⁱ See page 74. ^j See page 74.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1922—Continued.
DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.
1 Evangelical Lutheran Institution	Last Wednesday in June to first Wednesday in September.....	Tuition fees and Lutheran Congregations.
2 St. John's Catholic Institute.....	End of June to first week in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
3 Mr. Knapp's Institute.....	None.....	Tuition fees and State appropriations.
4 McCowen Oral School.....	Last Friday in June to first Monday in Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
5 Ephpheta School.....	Last week of June to first week of Sept.....	Tuition fees and voluntary subscriptions.
6 Mater Consilii School.....	Six weeks	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
7 Sarah Fuller Home.....	15th of June to first week in September.	Private subscription.
8 Notre Dame School.....	June 1 to September 1	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
9 Institute of the Holy Rosary.....	June 30 to Sept. 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
10 St. Joseph's Institute (Mo.)	June 7 to Oct. 1.....	Tuition fees.
11 Wright Oral School.....	Two months	Industry of sisters and tuition fees.
12 St. Joseph's Institute (Cal.)	Two months	Voluntary contributions.
13 St. Francis Xavier's School	Second Wednesday in June to third Wednesday in September....	Corporation funds.
14 Boston School	First Thursday in June to first Monday in September.....	Voluntary contributions.
15 Evansville School.....	None.....	Tuition fees.
16 Washington Heights School.....		
16 Denominational and Private Schools.		

C.—SCHOOLS IN CANADA.

Name.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught. (b)	Within the last Fiscal Year.	NUMBER OF PUPILS.			PRESENT NOV 10, 1902.	PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			Date of opening.	Location.	Chief Executive Officer.	
				Total.	Male.	Female.		Total having instruction.	Male.	Female.				Total.
1 Catholic Institution for Male Deaf-Mutes for the Province of Quebec.	Oral Dep Oral	En., El., Bo., Cab., Car., Pa., Ga., Pa., Fr., Sh., Te., Wt.	75	60	48	12	1903	Ville St. Louis, near Montreal, P. Q.	Rev. J. M. Gauthier, O. S. V., Director.					
2 Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institution.	Man do	Art, Em., Ho., Kn., Se., Wea.	62	112	112	0	1881	Montreal, P. Q. (508 St. Denis St.)	Rev. Sister Philippe de Jésus, Superior.					
3 Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	Oral Dep Oral	Dr., Man., Fr., Sh., Te., Wt.	87	57	52	5	1887	Halifax, N. S.	James Pearson, Principal.					
4 Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.	do	Dr., Man., Fr., Sh., Te., Wt.	123	102	85	17	1870	Bellefleur, Ontario	Robert Mathison, M. A., Superintendent.					
5 Mackay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes and the Blind.	do	Car., Co., Dr., Fr., Sh., Wt.	288	123	150	73	1870	Montreal, P. Q. (41)	Mrs. Harriet E. Ashcroft, Superintendent.					
6 Frederickton Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.	do	Car., Co., Dr., Fr., Sh., Wt.	63	63	35	28	1882	Frederickton, N. B.	Albert F. Woodbridge, Superintendent.					
7 Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution.	do	Car., Co., Dr., Pa., Fr., Se., Wt.	82	59	27	15	1888	Winnipeg, Manitoba.	D. W. McDermid, Principal.					
7 Schools in Canada.			912	755	560	395	561							

* See page 73.

†† Including the principal and the teachers of industrial teachers of industries.

A = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method

B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method

C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method

†† Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries.

† A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method
 †† Including the principal and the teachers of industries † Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. (a) Notre Dame de Grace. (b) See page 74. (c) For the year 1901.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF. NOVEMBER 10, 1902—Continued.
SCHOOLS IN CANADA—Continued.

Name.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	EXPENDITURE LAST FISCAL YEAR.		No. volumes in library.
				For support.	For buildings and grounds.	
1 Catholic Inst'n, (Male).....	Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions.....	\$150,000	2,175
2 Catholic Inst'n, (Female).....	July 1st to Sept. 1st.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	5,288
3 Halifax Institution (a)	Last week in June to first week in Sept.....	Province and voluntary contributions	100,000	\$17,236	300
4 Ontario Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province	256,760	45,252	\$4,260	2,725
5 Mackay Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions.....	60,000	9,039	526	1,000
6 Fredericton Institution.....	July 1 to Sept. 1.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	5,834
7 Manitoba Institution	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Province	80,000	14,780	21,416	500
7 Schools in Canada.						

(a) For the year 1901.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The "Methods of Instruction" named in the preceding Tabular Statement may be defined as follows:

I *The Manual Method.* Signs, the manual alphabet, and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. The degree of relative importance given to these three means varies in different schools; but it is a difference only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

II *The Manual Alphabet Method.* The manual alphabet and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. Speech and speech-reading are taught to all of the pupils in one of the schools (the Western New York Institution) recorded as following this method.

III *The Oral Method.* Speech and speech-reading, together with writing are made the chief means of instruction and facility in speech and speech-reading, as well as mental development and written language, is aimed at. There is a difference in different schools in the extent to which the use of natural signs is allowed in the early part of the course, and also in the prominence given to writing as an auxiliary to speech and speech-reading in the course of instruction; but they are differences only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

IV. *The Auricular Method.*—The hearing of semi-deaf pupils is utilized and developed to the greatest possible extent, and, with or without the aid of artificial appliances, their education is carried on chiefly through the use of speech and hearing, together with writing. The aim of the method is to graduate its pupils as hard-of-hearing speaking people instead of deaf-mutes.

V. *The Combined System.* Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are regarded as still more important. It is believed that in many cases mental development and the acquisition of language can be best promoted by the Manual or the Manual Alphabet method, and, so far as circumstances permit, such method is chosen for each pupil as seems best adapted for his individual case. Speech and speech-reading are taught where the measure of success seems likely to justify the labor expended, and in most of the schools some of the pupils are taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method or by the Auricular method.

INDUSTRIES TAUGHT IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The "Industries Taught" in American Schools for the Deaf, mostly designated by abbreviations in the preceding Tabular Statement, are: Art, Baking (Bak.), Barbering (Bar.), Basket-making (Bas.), Blacksmithing (Bl.), Bookbinding (Bo.), Bricklaying (Bk.), Broom-making (Br.), Cabinet-making (Cab.), Calcimining (Cal.), Carpentry (Car.), Chalk-engraving (Ce.), Cementing (Cg.), Chair-making (Ch.), China painting (Cp.), Cooking (Ck.), Clay-modelling (Cl.), Coopery (Co.), Domestic science (Do.), Drawing (Dra.), Dress-making (Dr.), Electricity (El.), Embroidery (Em.), Engineering (En.), Fancy-work (Fan.), Farming (Fa.), Floriculture (Fl.), Gardening (Ga.), Glazing (Gl.), Harness making (Ha.), House decoration (Hd.), Half-tone engraving (He.), Housework (Ho.), Horticulture (Hor.), Ironing (Ir.), Knitting (Kn.), Lace-making (La.), Manual-training (Man.), Mattress-making (Ma.), Millinery (Mi.), Needlework (Nw.), Painting (Pa.), Paper-hanging (Pap.), Plastering (Pl.), Plate-engraving (Pe.), Photography (Ph.), Printing (Pr.), Pyrography (Py.), Sewing (Se.), Shoemaking (Sh.), Sign-painting (Si.), Sloyd (Sl.), Stone-laying (St.), Tailoring (Ta.), Tin-work (Tin.), Typewriting (Ty.), Venetian Iron Work (Ven.), Weaving (Wea.), Wood-carving (Wc.), Wood-engraving (We.), Wood-turning (Wt.), Wood-working (Ww.), Working in Iron (Wi.), and the use of tools.

AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1902.*

Abbott, Maggie (sewing and fancy work), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.

Acheison, Herbert H., B. A. (Normal Fellow), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Adams, Albert F., M. A. (gymnastics), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Adams, Henriette (domestic science), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Adams, Ida H. (reading and language), Horace Mann School, Boston.

Adams, Mabel E. (language), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.

* Corrections of any errors or omissions in this list will be thankfully received by the editor of the *Annals*.

- Adams, Mary B. (language and physical training), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
- Adams, Mina A., Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
- Adele, Sister M. (Principal), Mater Consoli School, St. Louis, Mo.
- Adelma, Sister M., St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.
- Agatha, Rev. Mother (Principal), St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.
- Aglace, Sister (sewing), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Amece de la Providence, Sister (weaving), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Akins, Anna M., Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
- Albertine, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Alcorn, Larry M. W., Kozminski School, Chicago, Ill.
- Alda, Sister (art), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Adahough, Brewster R. B. A. (manual), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
- Allen, Buford L. (printing), Montana School, Boulder, Mont.
- Allen, Mrs. Emma C. (needle-work), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
- Allen, Henrietta E., Albany Home School, Albany, N. Y.
- Allen, Mary, American School, Hartford, Conn.**
- Alison, Isaac (carpentry), Kendall School, Washington, D. C.
- Ames, Elizabeth, St. Joseph's Institution, Fordham, N. Y.
- Anderson, Bessie, Albany Home School, Albany, N. Y.
- Anderson, B. C. (oral), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Springs, S. C.
- Anderson, Eva M., Maine School, Portland, Me.
- Anderson, G. Walrid (printing), Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
- Anderson, Mrs. J. Scott, Washington Heights School, New York.**
- Andrews, Cordelia (speech), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
- Andrews, Georgia E. (oral), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Andrews, Harriet E. (speech), Western New York Institution, Rochester, New York.
- Andrews, Helen B. (kindergarten oral), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
- Angeline Marie, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Appgar, Harry (painting), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Appleton, D. C. (gardening), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
- Applewhite, Alice, Washington State School, Vancouver, Wash.
- Arbaugh, Nellie (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Archer, Mrs. Jeannette (oral), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Archer, Tams V., M. A. (oral), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Archibald, Carrie H., Oshkosh School, Oshkosh, Wis.
- Archibald, Hester (dressmaking), Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.
- Archibald, Orson, B. A. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis

Argo, W. K., M. A. (Superintendent), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Argyle, Blanche E., Black River Falls School, Black River Falls, Wis.

Armstrong, Alice, Maine School, Portland, Me.

Armstrong, Grace E., Maine School, Portland, Me.

Arnold, Mary, Lyman Trumbull School, Chicago, Ill.

Asbury, Lulu, Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.

Ashcroft, Mrs. Harriet E. (Superintendent), Mackay Institution, Montreal, P. Q.

Ashelby, Katherine E., Burr School, Chicago, Ill.

Atkinson, Mary E. (dressmaking), American School, Hartford, Conn.

Atwood, Ralph H. (intermediate), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

Aurèle, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.

Austin, Ida (oral), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.

Austin, Mrs. Ida L. (oral), Louisiana Institution, Baton Rouge, La.

Austin, Laurence (shoemaking), St. Joseph's Institution, West Chester, N. Y.

Austin, Sister Mary, Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.

Austin, S. C., West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.

Autenrieth, May (manual), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.

Auwerter, Fred. (baking), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Avery, Elizabeth B., Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Ayres, Emilia A., Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.

Ayres, J. W. (shoemaking), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.

Babb, Emily A., B. A. (grade work, intermediate department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

Bachelder, Grace D. (cooking), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.

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Kirkpatrick, Sallie (sewing), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.

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Kiscaden, Annie (tailoring), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Klein, Jacob (tailoring), Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.

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Knight, Emma F. (manual), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.

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Larsen, Fred. C. (printing), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.

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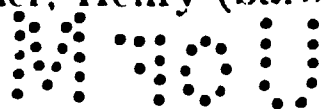
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Marie-Agnathe, Sister (manual), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Marie-Aimé, Sister (manual), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
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Marie-Angeline, Sister (manual), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Marie Celeste, Sister (sewing), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Marie-Eleonore, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Marie-Ignace, Sister (weaving), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Marie-Nazaire, Sister (manual), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
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Rogers, Grace A. (articulation), Maryland School for Colored, Baltimore, Md.
Rogers, J. F. (painting), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
Rogers, Maria A., B. A. (in charge, primary department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Rogers, Martha, North Dakota School, Devils Lake, N. D.
Rogers, T. J. (penmanship), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Romain, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Rooney, Celia (shirtmaking), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Root, Belle (needlework), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
Roper, Annie M., Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.
Ross, Belle S. (physical culture), Utah School, Ogden, Utah.

- Ross, Edyth, Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
- Roth, Louis A., B. A. (printing), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Rothert, Henry W. (Superintendent), Iowa School, Council Bluffs.
- Rothert, Waldo H., B. A. (manual), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
- Rowland, Thomas R. (carpentry), Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
- Rucker, James T. (Principal), West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
- Rudolph, Hulda, Sparta School, Sparta, Wis.
- Rufina, Sister (manual), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Ruggles, Jennie Louise (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
- Russel, Jane L. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Russel, Margaret (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Russell, Florence M., Rhode Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
- Russell, Grace A., Rhode Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
- Ryan, David, Jr. (manual), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- Ryan, Mary J., St. Joseph's Institution, West Chester, N. Y.
- Ryder, J. P., Home for Training in Speech, Philadelphia, Pa.
- St. Clair, Flora, Yale School, Chicago, Ill.
- Sallis, Gussie (colored department), Mississippi Institution, Jackson.
- Satterly, Cora B. (manual), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- Satterthwaite, Estella (history and sciences), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
- Scheetz, Mary E., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Schilling, Alice, Darwin School, Chicago, Ill.
- Schoolfield, A. T. (oral), Montana School, Boulder, Mont.
- Schoolfield, George T. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Schory, Albert H., B. A. (intermediate), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Schrock, Nellie J. (kindergarten), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis.
- Schumacher, Margaret (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Schwarz, William H. (floriculture), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Schwegler, Ida (history and grammar), Cincinnati Oral School, Cincinnati, O.
- Schwirz, John, Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Schwirz, Sigrid (cooking), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Scott, Frances Margaret, Mystic Oral School, Mystic, Conn.
- Scott, Wirt A., M. A. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Scott, Mrs. Wirt A. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Seaton, Charles D., B. A., (academic department, printing and book-binding), North Dakota School, Devils Lake, N. D.
- Selby, Mary A. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Seliney, Fort Lewis, M. A., Central New York Institution, Rome.
- Sellars, Ella (dressmaking), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Sensenig, Barton, B. S. (arithmetic, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

- Shanklin S. A. (cooking), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
Sharp B. Howard (academic department and physical culture), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
Shaw, Mary B., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
Sheehan, Margaret (housework), St. Joseph's Institution, Fordham.
Shelley, Katharine C., St. Joseph's Institution, Fordham, N. Y.
Shelton, Agnes (oral), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
Sherer, Mrs. Lizzie (sewing), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
Sheridan, Mary J., B. A. (manual alphabet), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Sheridan, Thomas, B. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Sherman, Isaac (tailoring), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Shermer, Charlotte, Eau Claire School, Eau Claire, Wis.
Shideler, Fannie B. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
Shurtle, Mabel (oral), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Simpson, James (superintendent), South Dakota School, Sioux Falls.
Simpson, Mrs. Mary L., South Dakota School, Sioux Falls, S. D.
Simpson, Mary A., Home for Training in Speech, Philadelphia, Pa.
Snies, Mrs. Kathryn F. (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Small, Sara F. (articulation), Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.
Smith, Alice N., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Smith, Blanche E., Grand Rapids School, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Smith, Caroline R. (intermediate), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Smith, Florence G. S. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Smith, Ina, Eau Claire School, Eau Claire, Wis.
Smith, James L., M. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Smith, Jennie C. (Principal), Eau Claire School, Eau Claire, Wis.
Smith, Mary E. (advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Smith, R. R. (broom-making), Colorado School, Colorado Springs.
Snader, Anna (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Snider, Amy E., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Snyder, Harry (manual alphabet), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Somerville, Alice (kindergarten), Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
Sorenson, Sara, Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.
Sorenson, Lillian M. (art), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
Sowell, James W., B. A., Maryland School for Colored, Baltimore, Md.
Spaight, Augusta (articulation), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg.
Sparrow, Rebecca E. (articulation), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
Spencer, Bethe B., Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Ross, F.	Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Roth	Cincinnati Oral School, Cincinnati.
Roth	School, Hartford, Conn.
Roth	Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Roth	Pennsylvania Institution, North Airy.
Roth	Pennsylvania Institution, North Airy.
Roth	Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Roth	Missouri School, St. Louis, Mo.
Roth	Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
Roth	Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Roth	Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
Roth	Standard School, Cleveland, O.
Roth	Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
Roth	Millinery and embroidery, New Jersey.
Roth	Knitting and fancy-work, Washington.
Roth	Intermediate oral, Ohio Institution, Columbus.
Roth	Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario, Can.
Roth	Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Roth	Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Roth	E. M. A. Superintendent and Principal, Nebraska.
Roth	Oral department and dressmaking, Montana.
Roth	Intermediate, Pennsylvania Institution, Philadelphia, Pa.
Roth	Ph. B. American School, Hartford, Conn.
Roth	Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
Roth	Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
Roth	H. E. cooking, Hartford School, Hartford, Conn.
Roth	B. A. School, Baltimore, Md.
Roth	N. Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
Roth	Arkansas Institution, Arkansas.
Roth	Elizabeth, Institution, New Jersey.
Roth	Grace H. articulation, Washington.
Roth	New York, N. Y.
Roth	Lena A. kindergarten, Washington.
Roth	New York, N. Y.
Roth	Knitting-making, Washington, Md.

- Suess, Charles (shoemaking), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Sullivan, Andrew J., B. A. (manual), Louisiana Institution, Baton Rouge, La.
Sullivan, Anna (Principal), Fond du Lac School, Fond du Lac, Wis.
Sullivan, Margaret M. (Principal), Grand Rapids School, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Summers, Carrie H., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
Summers, Sarah L. D., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.
Suso, Sister M., St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.
Sutherland, Leela M. (kindergarten), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
Suttka, Charles (tailoring), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
Swann, Kate (needlework), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
Swett, Nellie H. (Principal), New England Industrial School, Beverly, Mass.
Swink, W. C. (wood-working), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
- Taft, Carolyn G. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Taft, Grace Emilie (deaf-blind), Perkins Institution for the Blind, Boston, Mass.
Talliaferro, Clara C. (Normal Student), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
Tate, James N., M. A. (Superintendent), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Taylor, Bernice (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Taylor, C. W. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Taylor, Elizabeth, Oklahoma Institute, Guthrie, Okla.
Taylor, Elizabeth R. (Principal), Maine School, Portland, Me.
Taylor, Ellen E., Cleveland School, Cleveland, O.
Taylor, E. M. R. (art), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
Taylor, Harris (geography and history, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Taylor, Helen (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
Taylor, Jean McN. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Taylor, Martha M., Maine School, Portland, Me.
Taylor, Nellie M., Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
Taylor, Robert L. (manual), Louisiana Institution, Baton Rouge.
Taylor, W. E., M. A. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Taylor, Mrs. W. E. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Teegarden, George M., B. A. (manual), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Templeton, S., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario, Canada.
Teresa, Sister M. Austin, Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo.

- Terrill, Mrs. J. G., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario, Canada.
- Thayer, Fannie E. (manual), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Théophile, Sister (cooking), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Thomas, Mrs. Ida E., Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
- Thomas, J. W., Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
- Thomas, Olivia (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Thomason, Mrs. I. M., South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
- Thomason, Pattie, Florida Institute, St. Augustine, Fla.
- Thompson, Anne C., Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.
- Thompson, A. J., West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
- Thompson, Edwin Stanley, M. A. (geography and botany, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Thompson, Emma Ross (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Thompson, Fannie (oral), North Carolina School, Morganton, N. C.
- Thompson, Frances (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Thompson, L. L. (carpentry), Washington State School, Vancouver.
- Thompson, Mary H. (arithmetic and geography), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
- Thompson, Richard T., Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
- Thompson, Zach. B. (printing), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- Thornberry, W. M. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Thornberry, Mrs. W. M. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Throckmorton, Helen G. (grade work, primary department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
- Thurber, Amey (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
- Ticknor, E. E. H. (floriculture and horticulture), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Tillinghast, David R. (manual), North Carolina School, Morganton.
- Tillinghast, Edward S., B. A. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Tillinghast, Robina (oral), North Carolina School, Morganton, N. C.
- Tillinghast, Thomas H., North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.
- Tilson, Mary D., New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
- Tilton, Ernest (laundering), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Tilton, William I., B. A. (manual alphabet), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Tingley, Elizabeth Scott (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Toney, M. E., Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
- Torrens, Margaret A., St. Joseph's Institution, West Chester, N. Y.
- Towler, Mary (oral), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
- Townsend, Allis M. (kindergarten, articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.

- Townsend, W. A. (shoemaking), North Carolina School, Morganton.
- Tracy, H. Lorraine, B. A. (manual department and printing), Louisiana Institution, Baton Rouge, La.
- Traynor, Margaret (cooking), St. Joseph's Institution, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- Trepanier, Rev. Canon F. X. (Chaplain), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
- Tripp, George F. (cabinet-making), Mississippi Institution, Jackson.
- Tripp, Sally B. (arithmetic and language), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
- Trout, Gay, Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
- Tuck, Louis C., B. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Tucker, Bessie A. (primary), Cincinnati Oral School, Cincinnati, O.
- Tucker, Mary P. (oral primary), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
- Turner, May E., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
- Turner, Minnie (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Turriff, Lily J. (manual), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Tuttle, Mary W., B. A. (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Uhlig, H. D. (German language), German Evangelical Lutheran Institute, North Detroit, Mich.
- Unkart, Mary E., Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.
- Upham, Mary C. (art), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Upham, N. Louise (grade work, primary department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
- Upham, Una (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Upperman, Sallie A. (oral), North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.
- Vail, Helen C., New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
- Vail, Sidney J. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Valerian, Sister Mary, Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
- Van Adestine, Elizabeth (Principal), Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
- Van Adestine, Gertrude (Principal), Calumet School, Calumet, Mich.
- Van Bencoten, Irene (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
- Vandegrift, Edith, B. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
- Van Dusen, Katherine G., Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.
- Van Ingen, Elizabeth (articulation), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
- Van Tassell, William Henry (military tactics), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
- Vaughan, Sergeant, Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S., Canada.
- Veditz, George W., M. A. (manual), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
- Veditz, Mrs. G. W. (deaf-blind), Colorado School, Colorado Springs,

Walker, Albert H., B. A. (Head Teacher), Florida Institute, St. Augustine, Fla.

Walker, E. W. (Superintendent), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.

Walker, Frances (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

Walker, Horace E., B. A., Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.

Walker, John P., M. A. (Superintendent), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.

Walker, Lois, Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

Walker, M. F., Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.

Walker, Newton F. (Superintendent), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.

Walker, W. L., B. A. (Principal), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.

Wallace, Nann G. (plain sewing), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.

Walters, K. R. (oral), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.

Walton, Idella (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Wambold, R. S. (physical culture), Illinois Institution, Jacksonville.

Ward, Frances (dressmaking), Ephpheta School, Chicago, Ill.

Wardroper, Marie L. (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.

Warnock, William E. (carpentry), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Waters, Clara (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.

Watkins, Margaret (manual), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Watson, Mrs. Cecilia, Washington State School, Vancouver, Wash.

Watson, James (Superintendent), Washington State School, Vancouver, Wash.

Watts, Elizabeth May (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Watts, Florence E., Florida Institute, St. Augustine, Fla.

Watts, Samuel S. (shoemaking), North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.

Way, F. Burr (articulation), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.

Weaver, J. A., Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S., Canada.

Weaver, Stella E. (language, phonetics, and physical training), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.

Weaver, R. S. (carpentry, cabinet-making, and painting), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.

Webb, Oliver (drawing, sloyd, and basketry), Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.

Weeks, William H., American School, Hartford, Conn.

Weidemeyer, A. (sewing, fancy-work, and housework), German Evangelical Lutheran Institute, North Detroit, Mich.

Wells, Mabel Benton (kindergarten, articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.

Weltmer, Frank W. (tailoring), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

West, Emma F. (speech and physiology, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Westervelt, Zenas Freeman, LL. D. (Superintendent and Principal), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.

Westfall, Ida B. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.

Wettstein, Frances (Principal), Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Weyerman, Robert (shoemaking), Texas School, Austin, Texas.

Whalen, Walter (shoemaking), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.

Wharton, Lula E. (oral), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.

Wheeler, Frank R., M. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

Wheeler, Henry (sloyd), Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.

Whipple, N. F. (articulation), California Institution, Berkeley, Cal.

White, Alice M. (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.

White, Annie E. (grade work, primary department), Clarke Institution, Northampton, Mass.

White, Cyrus E., M. A., Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

White, Marie M., American School, Hartford, Conn.

White, Winifred (sewing), American School, Hartford, Conn.

Whitney, Mary C. (geography and English), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

Whitney, Mary M., B. A. (intermediate), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Wickham, L. A. (shoemaking), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.

Wilcox, Rachel M. (United States history), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.

Wilcoxson, Florence (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Wilde, Ida M., Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.

Wilkie, Theo. (photo-engraving), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg.

Wilkins, Elizabeth P. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Wilkinson, Warring. M. A., L. H. D. (Principal), California Institution, Berkeley, Cal.

William, Sister Mary, (sloyd), Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.

Williams, Mrs. Alice V. (cooking and domestic science), North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.

Williams, Mrs. Blanche Wilkins (dressmaking and fancy work), North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.

Williams, Brent (printing), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.

Williams, Charles N., M. A. (Executive in absence of Principal), North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.

Williams, E. Belle (cadet), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.

Williams, Fanny, Wicker Park School, Chicago, Ill.

Williams, Grace C., Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.

Williams, Job, M. A., L. H. D. (Principal), American School, Hartford.

Williams, J. H. W., B. S. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.

- Williams, J. W., Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
 Williams, Kate D. (reading and language), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
 Williams, Mary (oral), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
 Williams, Thos. J., Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
 Williamson, Mary M. (manual), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Willoughby, J. Evelyn (grade work, intermediate department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
 Wilson, Mrs. H. B., Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
 Wilson, Marti Keen, Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.
 Winston, Mrs. L. A. (Supervising Teacher, primary classes), North Carolina School, Morganton, N. C.
 Winston, Matie (oral), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
 Wirgman, Edna J., West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
 Wittenmeier, Olga C. (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Witter, Ruth (speech), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
 Wittig, Meta C., Rock Island School, Rock Island, Ill.
 Wood, Bardsley (brick, stone laying, plastering), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Wood, Catherine (manual alphabet), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Wood, Mary R., New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
 Wood, S. Frances (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Woodbridge, Albert F. (Superintendent), Fredericton Institution, Fredericton, N. B., Canada.
 Woodbridge, Irene, Fredericton Institution, Fredericton, N. B.
 Woodbury, Max W., Utah School, Ogden, Utah.
 Woodworth, Lillian (oral department, colored school), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
 Woodworth, Mary, Prescott School, Chicago, Ill.
 Worcester, Margaret J., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.
 Wright, C. W. (manual), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Wright, Frank R., South Dakota School, Sioux Falls, S. D.
 Wright, Frederick Starr, B. A., Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.
 Wright, Grace L., M. A. (history, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Wright, John Dutton, M. A. (Principal), Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.
 Wright, Walter E. (printing), Central New York Institution, Rome.
 Wyand, E. Clayton, B. A. (intermediate), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
 Wyckoff, Edith (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Wynn, E. Agnes (kindergarten), St. Joseph's Institution, Brooklyn.
 Yale, Caroline A., LL. D. (Principal), Clarke School, Northampton.
 Yates, Frank B. (Superintendent), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock.

- Yeager, Mrs. Anne W. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
 Yendes, Candace A. (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa
 Yoe, Hattie, Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
 Young, Belle (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Young, Elizabeth R. (arithmetic, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa
 Young, Julia M. (intermediate), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
 Young, Kitty, Rhode Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
 Young, Louisa T. (geography and history, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy Philadelphia, Pa
 Young, Minnie B. (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O
 Young, Mrs. M. C., Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss
 Zane, Mary S., Home for Training in Speech, Philadelphia, Pa
 Zell, Mrs. Ella A. (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O
 Zell, Ernest (art), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Zimmerman, Bessie H. (cooking), Maryland School, Frederick, Md
 Zorn, William H., B. A. (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

American School. Miss Laura E. Bell has been added to the corps of teachers.

Calumet Day School —Through the efforts of Mr. A. W. Smith, of Cleveland, Ohio, and the Calumet School Board, a day-school has been established at Calumet, Michigan. Miss Gertrude Van Adestine, late of the Stevens Point, Wisconsin, Day-School, is the teacher.

Cincinnati Oral School —Mrs. Mabel Maris Swope has resigned her position as teacher, and Mrs. Laura W. Ewing has been appointed to the vacancy.

Cleveland Day-School Miss Minnie E. Morris and Miss Mary Towler have gone to the Mississippi Institution. Miss Kathlena W. Gordon, late of the Rhode Island School, has been added to the corps of instructors.

Detroit Day-School —Miss Jessie Ball, a normal student last year, has been appointed a teacher.

Florida Institute —Mr. W. H. Carter has resigned as teacher to return to the Kentucky School, Miss Elizabeth B. Avery to teach in the Iowa School, and Miss Bessie Blaker to be married. They are succeeded by Mr. Albert

H. Walker, B. A., formerly of the Texas and Tennessee Schools, who becomes head teacher and editor of the *Herald*; Miss Florence Watts, formerly of the West Virginia School, and Miss Pattie Thomason, a niece of Mr. N. F. Walker, Superintendent of the South Carolina Institution. Mr. W. A. Caldwell, late of the North Carolina Institution at Raleigh, is appointed manager and teacher of the Colored Department, and Mrs. Caldwell matron and teacher.

Grand Rapids Day-School.—Mrs. Margaret Maybury, a normal student in the Detroit Day-School last year, has been appointed a teacher.

Institute of the Holy Rosary.—The Very Reverend Father H. C. Mignot, the founder of this school, died November 9, 1902, after an illness of several months.

Horace Mann School.—Miss Martha E. Melchert has resigned her position as teacher, and Miss Mary B. Adams, a teacher in one of the public schools of Boston, has been appointed to succeed her.

Illinois Institution.—The school building had a narrow escape from destruction by fire on the night of December 8. The fire started in the janitor's room in the basement, was quickly communicated to the neighboring air-shaft, and soon rose almost to the fourth floor. Fortunately, it was discovered by Dr. Gordon and extinguished by the institution people and city fire department before serious damage was done, though at first Dr. Gordon feared that it would be impossible to save the building.

Indiana School.—Miss Frances Glenn, late of the Missouri School, has been appointed a teacher, succeeding Miss Agnes Steinke. Two new industries, tin and metal work for the boys, and domestic science for the girls, have been established.

Kansas School.—Miss Edyth Ross, a normal student in articulation for a year, has been added to the teaching force. Miss M. O. Bell has resigned to teach in Alabama.

Louisiana Institution.—Mr. Robert S. Taylor, B. A., formerly of the Florida School, has been appointed a teacher in the Manual Department.

Maryland School for Colored —Miss Anna Belle Stout, B. A., has been added to the corps of teachers.

Michigan School. Miss Henrietta Lindsay has resigned her place as teacher to accept a position in the Western Pennsylvania Institution. Miss Lulu E. Carpenter, a normal student of this school, has been appointed to fill this vacancy, and Miss Ethel Raab, also a normal student, has been appointed a regular teacher to fill one of the vacancies which have existed since school opened.

Milwaukee Day-School. Miss Laura Pettapiece, a normal student in the Detroit Day-School last year, has been appointed kindergartner.

Mississippi Institution —Miss Mary Towler, late of the Cleveland School, has been added to the corps of teachers in the Oral Department.

Missouri School. Mrs. Sarah J. (Crabbs) Corwin, a teacher in this school for the past six years, died December 3, 1902, from a stroke of paralysis, aged 44. She was a graduate of the Indiana School, and a teacher in that school from 1871 to 1877, and again from 1880 to 1896. In 1877 she was married to Mr. William R. Corwin, then a teacher in the Indiana School, now of the Missouri School. She was an enthusiastic and successful instructor, loving her work and beloved by her pupils. The following minute and resolutions were adopted by the teachers of the school:

On December 3d, at the first hour of a new day, the soul of our friend and coworker, Mrs. Sadie J. Corwin, was called to a life eternal. Her death closes prematurely the career of a rarely successful teacher. Full of love and sympathy for her pupils, she inspired them to do their best, and her schoolroom was never a place of drudgery, but where work was pleasure.

Entering in her zeal for the best interests of the Institution, and of high ideals, she always sought to instill in the minds of her pupils the same principles and love for work. Though frail in body, she was ever ready to give her thought, strength, and time where needed, and ever faithful in the matters committed to her charge.

To the scores of children to whom she gave so many years of her life, her memory will remain an inspiration and an incentive. For such

teachers do not die, but the influence of their character and their work lives after them.

Resolved, that her life of unselfish devotion to the education of the deaf, her unfaltering Christian faith, her helpful counsel, and the great good that she accomplished, will remain with us a beautiful memory and an incentive to effort.

Resolved, that in her death this Institution suffers an irreparable loss, and each teacher and officer to whom she had endeared herself by association and the charm of her personality, a great personal loss.

Resolved, that we tender to her husband and our colaborer the assurance of our heartfelt sympathy in the time of his deep affliction.

HELEN E. BRIGHT,
DOSIA A. GRIMMETT,
HENRY GROSS,
Committee.

New York Institution.—Miss A. Louise Steadman resigned her position as teacher at the close of the year to be married. Her place was supplied by the appointment of Miss Amey Thurber, who had received her training at the Rhode Island School.

Ground has been broken for the new annex building, which is to be fire-proof, and will cost one hundred and thirty thousand dollars.

Michael Elliott, a pupil of this Institution, has been awarded a scholarship in the National Academy of Design, and is in daily attendance for the development of his peculiar ability in personal delineation.

The following minutes and resolutions have been adopted as a testimonial to the memory of the late Rev. Dr. Thomas Gallaudet:

By the Board of Directors:

The deaf hear, to the poor the gospel is preached.

Such were two of the facts to which the Master pointed in evidence of the divinity of his mission.

Our late beloved associate humbly following in His footsteps, took as the keynote of his life the accomplishment of these two objects.

Unable miraculously to bestow actual hearing upon the deaf, he gave fifteen years of his early youth to the task of bringing them into communication with their fellow men, by serving as a teacher in this Institution. He put into this work that earnest single-minded devotion which was his distinguishing characteristic. To the last day of his life he studied with ever increasing interest to improve and perfect deaf-

mute education. He claims a large share in producing the result to which this Institution points with pride, that less than three per cent. of its graduates have failed to become self-supporting citizens of the community. But not content with advancing the temporal welfare of the deaf, he yearned to bring them to higher things. Isolated by his affliction, the deaf-mute cannot join in ordinary religious observance. Dr. Gallaudet determined that as he had been instructed to make his way in the world that now is, he should have equal advantage in education for the world that is to come.

While still a professor in this Institution, he had labored to this end, instituting in 1852 a small chapel for deaf-mutes only. For six years he continued in this dual education, but in 1858, convinced of the greater importance of his church work, he resigned his professorship, and thereafter, until the end, dedicated himself to his ministry.

From a day of small things his work grew, passing from the little chapel in the University to the church in 18th Street, and from that, in 1892, to the important parish of St. Matthew, pledged to support a deaf-mute church for all time, and consecrating, in December, 1898, the Church of St. Ann, on 148th Street and Amsterdam Avenue. This, however, was only the nucleus. From it, as a foundation, sprang the far-reaching Church Mission to Deaf-Mutes, which sends its ministers throughout this broad continent wherever their services are needed. And to it the aged and infirm deaf-mute owes the establishment of that Home, in which he is certain of a refuge when threatened with poverty or incurable disease. And this may, without exaggeration, be ascribed to the influence and personal work of Dr. Gallaudet. Unendowed himself with riches, he had the faculty of so interesting others in his work that he found little difficulty in obtaining necessary funds. As his share, he contributed incessant and untiring labor, and so administered the trust committed to him, that its results are his best monument.

As a member of this Board, he was constant in his attendance and unremitting in the discharge of his duties. As a leading member of the Committee on Instruction, he is responsible for the completeness and thoroughness which marks our course of education, while in all other matters affecting the welfare of the Institution he took keen interest. His vacant place can never be adequately filled.

As his life passes in review before us, it manifests itself as one long devotion to duty. This one thing I do. And how beautiful a thing it was. Can any keener gratification be imagined than watching the unfolding and ripening of a human intellect which without the help of the watcher must remain dull and darkened.

And in addition to this to strive that not only the intellect but the soul should brighten to the perfect day. To these two things, to cause the deaf to hear, to preach to them the gospel, he gave his life. And to such purpose did he give it that when it ended we cannot doubt that

the greeting which fell upon his ear as he entered into life eternal ~~was~~
 WELL DONE, GOOD AND FAITHFUL SERVANT.

CHARLES AUGUSTUS STODDARD,
President.

THATCHER M. ADAMS,
Secretary.

By the pupils, officers, and teachers:

In the passing away of the Reverend Thomas Gallaudet, D. D., L.H.D., we mourn the loss of a friend who performed life-long service for the Institution. From 1843, when, in early manhood, he entered the profession of deaf-mute instruction as a teacher in this Institution, filling a position in this capacity for sixteen years, and subsequently, as a member of the Board of Directors, he ever manifested a warm and constant interest in the work, and loyally did his share to aid its progress and usefulness.

Dr. Gallaudet was elected a director of the Institution on June 10th, 1862, and served continuously on the Committee of Instruction for forty years. His personal acquaintance with the peculiarities of the deaf child, added to his experience as a teacher in the Institution, and his knowledge of its needs, peculiarly fitted him for a position of so great importance. He was twice elected on the delegations representing the Institution at International Congresses of teachers of the deaf held in Europe, and was frequently the representative of the Directors at the Conventions of the American Instructors of the Deaf in this country.

In his capacity as a member of the Committee of Instruction, of which he was chairman for many years, Dr. Gallaudet was brought into close contact with the pupils, teachers, and officers, to all of whom his benevolent countenance was familiar, and with most of whom he was personally acquainted. In his periodic inspection of the school, his warm and kindly disposition and his sincerity of purpose became known to us, to be admired and appreciated; therefore, be it

Resolved, That in the death of Dr. Gallaudet the Institution has lost a valued friend whose life-work, closely interwoven in its history and progress, was rich in service.

Resolved, That in his death, the deaf were left to mourn the loss of a friend of singular sweetness and purity of character, whose life was one of untiring devotion to their uplifting, to the advancement of ~~the~~ ^{their} education, and of their spiritual and temporal welfare.

ENOCH HENRY CURRIE
Chairman

THOMAS FRANCIS FOX,
Secretary.

North Dakota School.—Mr. Bangs met with a ~~serious~~
 accident in November from the explosion of a ~~disinfectant~~

apparatus containing formaldehyde. It was feared at first that he would lose his sight, but there is now strong hopes of his entire recovery. During his absence for treatment at a hospital in Fargo his father, Mr. Egbert L. Bangs, formerly Principal of the Michigan School, assisted Mrs. Bangs in the management of the School.

Oregon School.—Miss Tillie Garman, late of the Western Pennsylvania Institution, has been appointed to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Miss Orr. Mr. John Mather has been appointed teacher of carpentry. Mrs. Annie B. Scovell, instructor in needle work, has resigned to be married and her place has been filled by the appointment of Mrs. Martha A. Calvert.

Rhode Island Institute.—With the class of six pupils who were graduated last June the course of instruction in the Doyle Avenue Grammar School of Providence had been closely followed. The pupils took the examinations given at that school and by invitation of the principal received their diplomas with his pupils at the closing exercises of the Doyle Avenue School.

South Carolina Institution.—Miss E. Menefee, Miss L. A. Beard, Miss S. N. Rogers, Mrs. M. M. Thackston, and Miss H. R. Griswold have resigned their positions as teachers, and are succeeded by Miss B. C. Anderson, Miss K. R. Walters, Miss T. E. Gaillard, B. A., Miss E. P. Gibson, and Miss C. L. Grumman.

Tennessee School.—Miss Rosa R. Harris, formerly of the Maryland School, and Miss Jane Lee, from the Mississippi School, have been added to the corps of teachers. Miss Harris has charge of a manual class, and Miss Lee's work is oral. Mr. W. B. Rosson, boys' supervisor, has been made general manager of the *Silent Observer* office.

Texas School.—There have recently been added to the corps of teachers Miss Lillie Posey, Miss Ethel Makemson, and Miss Bernice Taylor in the oral department, and Mrs. George A. Brooks, B. A., and Mrs. William Thornberry in the manual department. The three young ladies appointed to the oral department took special training last summer.

Mrs. Brooks before her marriage was a teacher in the South Carolina Institution.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Henrietta M. Lindsay, late of the Michigan School, has been given a class in the primary department.

Wright Oral School.—Dr. Humason has sold his interest in this school and retired from the work of instructing the deaf. The name of the school is accordingly changed from “Wright-Humason School” to “Wright Oral School.”

Virginia School.—An addition to the dining-room, a new boiler-house, with an additional boiler, and a four-story brick building sixty feet square for dormitories, gymnasium, etc., for the girls, have just been completed.

Wisconsin School.—Mr. C. P. Cary, who resigned the superintendency of the Wisconsin School on his nomination by the Republican party as State Superintendent of Public Instruction, was elected to that office. He has appointed Miss Anna E. Schaffer, Inspector of Schools for the Deaf in the place of Mr. W. D. Parker. Several years ago Miss Schaffer was a normal student of the Phonological Institute under the late Mr. Paul Binner; for the past eight years she has been Superintendent of Schools for Chippewa County, Wisconsin. We are sorry to have good men like Mr. Cary and Mr. Parker leave the work for the deaf just as they were becoming well acquainted with it.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Tests of Hearing in Chicago Schools.—The *Journal of Eye, Ear, and Throat Diseases* for March–April, 1902, gives a summary of the results of an examination of the hearing power of children in Chicago common schools. The examination was conducted by Dr. D. P. MacMillan for the Department of Child Study and Pedagogic Observation, and is reported at length by him in *Medicine* for April, 1902. “The tests were made with the audiometer invented by Professor C. E. Seashore, of the Iowa State University. It was found that 15½ per cent. of the pupils upon entering school at the age of six had defective hearing, and the per-

centage increased rather rapidly in early school life and reached its highest point at the age of eight. From eight years on the percentage of defects diminished, and was at a minimum between the years of twelve and a half and thirteen and a half. Of the 6,729 children examined, the ages ranging from six to eighteen, 1,080, or 16 per cent., were found defective in hearing in one or both ears; 6 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. were defective in both ears, and 9 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. defective in one ear. In regard to the question whether there is any causal relation between physical defects and the pupil's ability to advance in the usual school courses, the author observed that the dull and backward pupils were not only smaller and lighter than the brighter and more advanced, but the children who were mentally superior showed on the average physical superiority in every test and measurement. Examination of 600 boys in the John Worthy School, which is supported by the Board of Education for the benefit of the juveniles in the city prison, showed a greater number of hearing defects among these boys than among so-called normal pupils. The number of those in the John Worthy School having speech defects was recorded, defects such as lisping, stammering, hesitation, and imperfect pronunciation of elementary sounds. Out of 601 there were 90 pronounced cases of such defects, and of this latter number 56, or 61 per cent., were markedly subnormal in hearing."

Inquiries concerning the Deaf.—The Committee of the National Association of the Deaf on the Industrial Status of the Deaf, consisting of Mr. Warren Robinson, chairman, Mr. Alex. Pach, and Mr. Phil. L. Axling, are sending out the following inquiries to deaf persons in business, to deaf workmen, and to employers of the deaf. The object is to collect useful information in order to advance the industrial conditions of the deaf. Answers should be addressed to Mr. Warren Robinson, Delavan, Wisconsin. No names will be used in discussing the answers except by permission.

TO THE DEAF IN BUSINESS.

1. At what school were you educated, and how long did you attend?
2. In what business are you engaged, and where located?

3. How long have you been in business there?
4. What occupation did you follow before going into business? How did you get started in business?
5. How large an establishment have you, and are you sole owner, or in partnership?
6. Who does the managing, if not yourself?
7. If you do the managing, do you have a hearing person to assist you?
8. Do you have difficulty in working up business; how do you proceed; do you solicit personally, by a hearing person, or through some other method?
9. Do you wish you were in some other line of business?
10. Would you rather be working for some one at regular wages than be in business?
11. Do you feel satisfied with the amount of work you do?
12. What is the size of the town or city in which you are located?
13. What is the field covered by your business—town, county, or state?
14. What led you to locate in the town where you are?
15. Do you have difficulty in getting credit at banks or of business men?
16. If you were to change your location would you seek a larger or a smaller town? Would you conduct the same line of business as now, or make a change?
17. Do you employ any deaf men or women, and why?
18. Do you advise that the deaf man or woman of average intellectual attainment enter into business if possible, or work for some one at regular wages?
19. What do you consider the chief obstacle to most deaf persons getting started in business and making a success of it?
20. What occupation do you consider best for those deaf men who are not able to do work requiring a high grade of intelligence?
21. Have you had much experience with deaf workmen as employer? What were some of their greatest shortcomings?
22. Do you think it would be advisable for the deaf throughout the country to have a regular business convention, where a consideration of ways and means of advancing their business or industrial interests only should be the leading object?
23. Can you talk; if so, which do you think the most certain and convenient way of communication with hearing people, speech and lip-reading, or writing and spelling?
24. What improvements would you suggest in the industrial departments of our schools?

TO DEAF WORKMEN.

1. At what school were you educated and how long were you at school?
2. What is your occupation?
3. Where did you learn your trade, and how long were you learning it?

4. How large is the shop or factory where you work?
5. What did you do before you began your present work?
6. Does the employer or foreman treat you the same as he does other workmen or workwomen?
7. What bothers you most in your work?
8. Do you belong to any union?
9. Do you have steady work?
10. Do you expect to enter business for yourself?
11. Do you think farming, gardening, etc., would be better for most of the deaf than working in printing offices, shops, or factories?
12. How many of your fellow workmen (hearing) have learned to spell on their fingers?
13. What trades do you think are best for the deaf?
14. Do you think the schools for the deaf should help pupils to get work when they leave school?
15. (a) Can you talk? (b) If so, can you make yourself more easily understood by speaking than by writing or spelling? (c) Can you read lips so well that your employer or foreman does not have to write or spell to you?
16. Which do you think the better, for the deaf to stay longer at school and learn more of their trade, or enter some shop or factory?
17. Do you get the same wages as your fellow workmen for the same work?
18. Does your employer seem to like hearing workmen better than deaf workmen?

TO EMPLOYERS OF THE DEAF.

1. How many deaf persons have you in your employ?
2. What is your experience with deaf employees?
3. In what respect, if any, do you think they lack as workmen?
4. Do you, as a general thing, think they are misunderstood or discriminated against?
5. Have you any suggestions to offer as to how their chances of securing desirable places as employees might be improved?
6. Which do you find the most certain and convenient form of communication with your deaf employees--speech and lip-reading, or signs, or writing, or spelling?
7. Which do you think would be the best for those pupils in schools for the deaf wishing to become more thoroughly acquainted with their work or trade--a post-graduate course at the school or the entering of some industrial establishment?
8. Do you think schools for the deaf should aid directly worthy boys and girls to secure suitable employment after leaving school?
9. Have you any suggestion as to what is best to teach in the industrial departments of our schools for the deaf?
10. Between a deaf man and a hearing man, each with equal qualifications as workmen, do you think employers would have a prejudice against employing the deaf man?

A British Educational Periodical.—We welcome the announcement that the National Association of Teachers of the Deaf of Great Britain has decided to establish this year an educational journal devoted to its interests. It is to be edited by Miss Susanna E. Hull and Mr. A. J. Story, with Mr. Roe, Mr. Van Praagh, Mr. Jones, Mrs. Kinsey, Mr. Shaw, Mr. Story, Miss Hull, and the officers of the Association *ex officio* as a Committee of Management. Mr. Roe has guaranteed the first year, and his committee the second year, against pecuniary loss. It is announced that "it is the intention of the management to preserve an attitude of strict impartiality as to the various systems of educating the deaf in the pages of the proposed journal."

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Publications.—We have received the following publications, some of which will be noticed more at length in a future number of the *Annals*:

BECH, FRITZ. Beretning om Dovstummeforeningens Virksomhed. [Report of the Deaf-Mute Association.] (Copenhagen: 1902.

JOHNSON, RICHARD O. Outlines (Twelfth Year) for 1902-1903 (Fifty-ninth year). Indianapolis: 1902.

NORDIN, F. Das Taubstummenbildungswesen in Schweden. [The Education of the Deaf in Sweden.] Breslau: 1902.

REGNARD, A. Contribution à l'Histoire de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets. [Contribution to the History of the Instruction of Deaf-Mutes.] Paris: 1902.

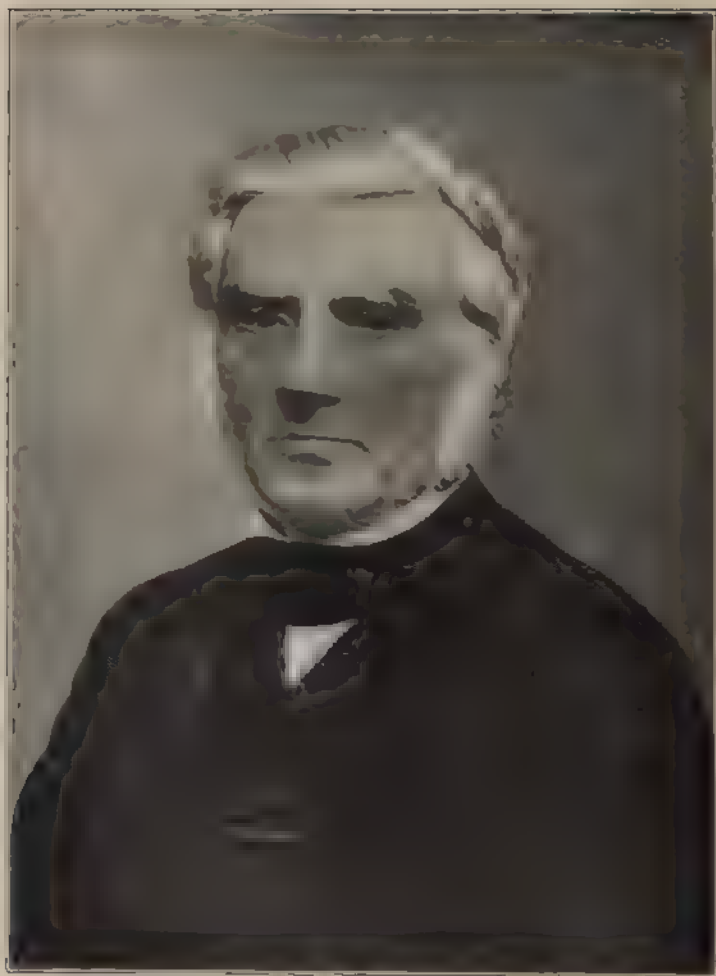
STELLING, H. Die Erziehung der schwachbegabten u. schwach-sinnigen Taubstummen und die Teilung nach Fähigkeiten überhaupt. [The Education of Feebly Endowed Deaf-Mutes and Separation according to Capacity.] Leipzig: 1902.

We have also received the following Reports of Schools, published in 1902:

Georgia, Groningen (Netherlands), Halifax, Holmestrand (Norway), Pennsylvania Home, Sarah Fuller Home, Texas, Venersborg (Sweden), Washington Heights, West Australian, Wright Oral.

ADVERTISEMENT.

Wanted, by an experienced artist, a position as Teacher of Drawing in some School for the Deaf. Collegiate and other references furnished. Address, B., 772 East 188th Street, New York City.



GEORGE HUTTON, F. R. S.

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AN INQUIRY INTO THE RELATIVE VALUE TO THE DEAF OF SPEECH AND SPEECH-READING.

A QUESTION often asked in the profession is, What is the relative value to the deaf of speech and speech-reading? It was asked at the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf at Buffalo in 1901, and the President of the Convention in reply raised a laugh by telling the story of a small boy who, when asked at the dinner-table whether he would have pie or pudding, said he would have both. True, both speech and speech-reading are valuable; but the question of their comparative value still remains, and if the one is more valuable than the other it is important for us to know which one it is, in order that our most earnest efforts in the schoolroom may be devoted to its attainment.

Thinking the question deserving of a more definite response than it received in the Convention, and considering the educated deaf in possession of both accomplishments as best able to answer it, circular letters were sent last winter to a large number, including all the most expert lip-readers among the deaf whose names and addresses could be obtained. Replies with varying amount of information were received from sixty-four persons, the whole forming an

interesting fund of information. To all these I wish to express my sincere thanks, as also to the editor of the *Annals* and Miss Caroline A. Yale, Principal of the Northampton School, for addresses furnished.

Of the answers received, forty-three (not including a number of students of Gallaudet College who were interviewed by Mr. F. J. Neesam of the Class of 1904) regarded speech as more important; eight preferred speech-reading while thirteen considered both of equal value. It may not be irrelevant to remark that of the forty-three favoring speech, a number referred to others with similar views.

These letters express the sentiments not only of some of the brightest among the deaf of the United States, but of other countries as well. All manifested great interest in the subject.

It has always been the writer's opinion that, were he to be entirely deprived of his hearing and to have to choose between the alternative of good speech or good lip-reading, decided preference would be given to the former, chiefly because speech is at all times available. In our daily intercourse I believe that the lack of speech would prove a greater calamity than the inability to read the lips of others, for in business as well as social intercourse conversation between a hearing person and a speaking deaf person can be more readily engaged in than conversation between a hearing person and a lip-reading deaf person. As lip-reading is somewhat of a novelty with the general public, many people prefer writing to the deaf to having their lips read. In writing, too, greater pains is taken to tell something worth telling. Moreover, with the deaf the written word leaves a more lasting impression on the memory.

It is argued by some of those who prefer lip-reading that we can gain more information than we can give; that we can listen rather than to speak ourselves. I believe, however, that the company of a fluent deaf speaker, other

things being equal, is more sought than that of a fluent deaf writer. The company of the speaking deaf person being more desirable, he will have greater opportunity to associate with the hearing and gain information.

Let us, however, hear the testimony of the speaking deaf, which for convenience sake I shall give in three groups: 1. The testimony of those placing greater value on lip-reading; 2. That of those regarding both accomplishments as equally desirable; 3. That of those considering speech more valuable.

Miss ALICE L. WARE, a successful portrait painter of Worcester, Massachusetts, finds lip-reading of greater service to her in her work.

Mrs. M. E. FINNEY, an aged lady of Kansas City, Missouri, who does not remember hearing conversation yet possesses good speech and lip-reading, thinks it is more profitable to listen to others, for which reason she favors lip-reading as of greater value.

Mrs. WALDO H. ROTHERT, of Omaha, Nebraska, expresses her views thus: "In my humble judgment lip-reading should be considered as pre-eminently of more practical benefit as an accomplishment of the deaf. But few make a success of speech, notwithstanding the efforts made in all our schools to teach speech, and the knowledge of imperfect speech retards with many its practical use."

Miss HELEN C. HOADLEY, of Dorchester, Massachusetts, writes: "The value of each is constantly rising and falling, according to the position of the deaf person. Speech and lip-reading go almost hand in hand. To have one accomplishment and not the other is to be but poorly equipped for taking one's place in the world. However, in a business life I find lip-reading of far more value than speech. If I could not have both, I would choose lip-reading as being of more value to the deaf than speech. A deaf person without speech could do her own writing, thus sav-

ing others that trouble and annoyance. I think lip-reading is to a deaf person what the sense of hearing is to a hearing person."

Miss MINNA E. SULLIVAN, an accomplished lip-reader of Manchester, New Hampshire, expresses her partiality to lip-reading as follows: "Lip-reading dispenses with signs or writing on the part of others, and that to a great degree takes away the conspicuousness of the deaf. Oftentimes people have not the time or inclination to write, and to be able to read the lips well simplifies matters in business or social intercourse. It allows a more thorough intermingling in a social or business way than could be possible by the power of speech alone. By this, through lip-reading, one may derive great enjoyment in life by not losing the many bits of talk around one which if written or spelled out would lose their essence. Speech seems indispensable—but people are always courteous enough to read what one writes if one be not gifted with the power of speech. On the whole I think lip-reading is of the more importance."

Miss HYPATIA BOYD, formerly a reporter for the *Milwaukee Sentinel*, but at present engaged as teacher of a deaf-blind child at the Wisconsin School for the Deaf, also considers lip-reading of greater importance than speech. She says: "While I highly value my speech, I have always found it most profitable and interesting to listen to others. Doubtless this tendency may be due to the fact that, being a person of moods, I am not always talkative, and consequently there are times when I would much prefer that others do the talking. Again, my experience as a newspaper woman resulted in a habit of drawing people to talk about their experiences, and I would show my appreciative interest in whatever was said. In this way, I came to find an indescribable pleasure and inspiration in listening to lovable, gifted, wise, and noble men and women. To me the conversation of such persons is a liberal education.

“The deaf who move with ease in general hearing society are those who have mastered the art of knowing how to listen to others, and these deaf persons are naturally adepts in lip-reading. To be sure there are always obstacles in the path of good lip-reading—such obstacles as overhanging moustaches, poor adjustment of the light, and so forth—but a wide-awake lip-reader will be tactful enough to steer clear of these hindrances. At school, a few of my professors very kindly trimmed or shaved off their moustaches so that I might read their lips, and, wherever I may be, there are days when I cannot but think of the good that might be accomplished by my scissors, but in all my life I never requested any one except my father to do without his moustache! Still moustaches or no moustaches, I think lip-readers can get along very well in reading the lips of others, if they have good strong eyes.

“I would never advise a deaf person with weak eyes to learn lip-reading, for the eyesight is far more precious than the ability to read lips, and in cases where lip-reading has a harmful effect on the eyes, it should be discontinued and the sign-language or the manual alphabet be allowed to take its place as a medium of conversation.

“While lip-reading is a priceless boon to the deaf in many ways, yet it has its limitations, especially in business affairs. A deaf man cannot use the telephone, while in business transactions involving large sums of money it would be sheer folly to rely entirely upon lip-reading. As regards public lectures, it is possible for expert lip-readers to understand what is said, providing that such lip-readers are fortunate enough to secure a good seat near the front where a full view of the speaker's lips can be had. But where the audience is composed of a large number of deaf persons, it is impossible to understand by means of lip-reading what the speaker says, and it is here that the sign language is indispensable.”

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orders from his superiors and has little talking to do himself, will naturally find speech-reading of more value than speech.

“Socially considered it appears to be a question of sex. A woman will get more pleasure from the ability to speak, while men—or most of them—prefer to listen.

“Educationally, a pupil, or an adult person for that matter, obtains more benefit from the ability to read the lips, for when that is acquired, information may be imparted more rapidly and quite as surely as by any other method.”

Mr. J. A. McILVAINE, also of the Mt. Airy School, writes: “The answer to your query seems to me to resolve itself into whether the person finds it more enjoyable to speak, or to be spoken to—to ask questions or to answer them. For my part, I want to do both. To be deprived of one or the other, were such a thing probable, would be to me an equally great calamity.

“To consider each accomplishment separately, the person proficient only in speech would require the other party to a conversation to use pad and pencil. The expert speech-reader, with little or no speech, would have to express himself in writing. In either case the disadvantage is the same.

“Then, to take the deaf person of average speech and speech-reading ability, it will be seen that he will occasionally have difficulty in both understanding and in being understood, in which case both parties must have recourse to some other means of communication. Thus it is that I fail to see wherein one confers a greater advantage than the other.

“When it comes to teaching speech and speech-reading it is quite another thing. Speech then becomes of greater advantage for the reason that speech-reading will more or less naturally follow. Take the case of a semi-mute in

favorable environment, who will acquire speech-reading with practically no effort. I doubt whether any deaf person can become expert in speech-reading who has not some knowledge of speech.

"I fear you will find very little satisfaction in this reply, but, speaking from my own experience at this stage, I could not well get along with one without the other. Little did I dream when at college, or previous to my going to the Boston School of Technology, that speech-reading would prove such a great blessing as I find it. I do not mean to say that I have been restored to society, but I do believe that those of the deaf who possess some speech do not appreciate the advantages that speech-reading will bring them."

Among those favoring speech, Mr. ALEX. L. PACH, operator for Pach Bros., photographers, New York City, and a ready speaker and lip-reader, laconically answers, "Speech, by far." The Rev. J. H. CLOUD, Principal of the St. Louis School for the Deaf, still more briefly says, "Speech!" While Mr. JAY COOKE HOWARD, a successful business man of Duluth, Minnesota, writes, "Speech, by all means."

Mrs. PHILIP J. HASENSTAB regards speech of greater value, "as all people do not speak plainly enough to be understood, and also because of the constant springing up of new words unfamiliar to the deaf."

Mr. and Mrs. OLOF HANSON, of Seattle, Washington, both good lip-readers, write as follows: "No comparison. Speech way ahead. In speaking the deaf are on exactly the same footing as hearing people; but speech-reading is merely a *substitute* for hearing, and in most cases a poor one at that."

Mr. A. LINCOLN FECHHEIMER, now studying architecture in Paris, France, writes: "I feel that a person has much more need of communication with the world than *vice versa*,

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and it is on this basis that I think the power of speech would give a deaf person more happiness and more satisfaction than lip-reading."

Mr. JOSEPH C. BAKER, of Roxbury, Massachusetts, considers speech "many times more valuable to the deaf than lip-reading," contending that "there is nothing that a deaf person enjoys more than the ability to speak like one possessed with the sense of hearing."

Mr. PHILIP MORIN, of Holyoke, Massachusetts, considers speech "in almost every instance of greater value than lip-reading," basing his opinion "on a study of the manners, habits, natures, and dispositions of hearing people and their attitude when speaking."

Miss LILLIAN G. SMITH, an artist and art teacher of Boston, who is regarded by her friends as an expert lip-reader, writes as follows: "While speech and lip-reading are generally inseparable, since you request an opinion on the subject, I should say that if it were possible to have but one, speech would prove the most valuable. But are deaf-mutes *ever* expert lip-readers?"

Mr. and Mrs. JAMES M. STEWART, of Flint, Michigan, regard speech as the more desirable "because it is a time-saver and makes it easier for us to get along among hearing people. In spite of long, diligent, and earnest practice in lip-reading, we often find it difficult to read the lips of people unaccustomed to the deaf. The ability to use speech makes the conversation less tedious to such people."

Mr. R. P. MCGREGOR, of Columbus, Ohio, finds lip-reading "so uncertain and misleading that I prefer to talk myself and make my friends write to me. I do not consider lip-reading of any practical use to the deaf except in rare cases, much heard of but seldom seen."

Mr. E. A. HODGSON, editor of the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* of New York City, finds the uncertainty of his lip-reading no hindrance to his social enjoyment or business transac-

tions among the hearing, but regards lip-reading without speech as of little value. He thinks however that "both accomplishments increase or diminish in value according to the degree of educated intelligence, knowledge of language, personal charms, and grace of manner of the deaf individual possessing them."

Mr. THOMAS F. FOX, of the New York Institution, writes: "As one who has a rather fair command of vocal speech, my personal opinion is that speech is of the most value. I find it a necessity and use it in all my intercourse with the hearing. Lip-reading is such an uncertain quantity that in all my business affairs I insist on the use of the manual alphabet or on writing, to be absolutely sure that I understand what is being said to me. For mere social affairs lip-reading is all right, though even then I find it requires a good deal of guessing."

Mr. L. F. SELINEY, editor of the *Deaf-Mutes' Register*, of Rome, New York, writes: "A deaf person who can speak and read the lips, all lips, leads a comparatively ideal existence; and it is a great pity that there is any question of the relative value of accomplishments that ought not to be disassociated. I think speech is the gold of the alloy. There cannot be much practical lip-reading without speech. A deaf and dumb lip-reader seems to me to be something of an anomaly."

Mrs. FRANK AIKEN, of Mamaroneck, New York, thinks "the possession of speech makes communication with strangers more simple, and puts the deaf more on a plane with the hearing," and therefore places greater value on speech than on lip-reading.

Miss MARY E. GRISWOLD, of the Chicago Day-Schools for the Deaf, classes lip-reading as secondary to speech. She writes: "Lip-reading adds to our own pleasure. Speech adds to the pleasure and lessens the annoyance of our friends in their association with us. I have known deaf-

mutes to envy my ability to speak, but never to envy my ability to read lips, that I remember."

Mr. WARREN ROBINSON, of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf, in an article in the *Wisconsin Times* two years ago, had the following to say regarding the comparative value of speech and lip-reading: "To read the lips is a fine thing, but to speak well is better. Speech and lip-reading do not always keep pace with each other, from conditions and circumstances over which we have no control. It is a well known fact that the really expert lip-readers are few and far between, unless are included those who can hear so well that little effort is required by them to make out what is said. And, it might be remarked in passing, nearly all lip-reading is necessarily confined to the most commonplace and familiar objects. Alongside a well-trained voice and correct enunciation, lip-reading is to me, as it generally goes, a superficial accomplishment. Clear and correct speaking is not only a great satisfaction and comfort to its possessor, but it also leaves a good impression on those with whom he comes in contact."

Mr. A. McDONALD CUTTELL, editor of the *British Deaf Monthly*, writes: "I would rather be a good speaker and a poor lip-reader than a good lip-reader and a poor speaker. The sense of euphony, which any fairly good speaker has in a more or less degree, is of great value to him in matters of either literary or vocal expression. Lip-reading is only possible under certain conditions, whereas a good voice—or a bad one, for the matter of that—can be put to practical use at all times. Upon the whole, I think the balance is in favor of speech."

Mr. WILLIAM I. TILTON, of the Illinois School for the Deaf, says: "I find speech of the greater value, as lip-reading often fails me, in which case pencil and pad prove a ready substitute. In church and theatre I have never been able to understand more than a few disconnected

sentences, not so much from a lack of ability to understand, as from the posture assumed by actor and preacher—one moment facing their audience, next sidewise, or back to us. To try and follow their speech were to attempt the impossible.”

Miss ROSA M. HALPEN, of the Rochester School for the Deaf, writes: “I value my speech very much more than I do my ability to read the lips, for the reason that I am able to do the one much better than the other. If my speech were so imperfect as not to be readily understood and I were very proficient in lip-reading, then I should value my lip-reading more than my speech. I believe that to a semi-mute who speaks very well speech is of more value than lip-reading. But in the case of congenitally deaf persons, whose speech is understood only by those familiar with it, lip-reading would stand in good stead oftener than their imperfect speech.”

Mr. LARS A. HAVSTAD, of Christiania, Norway, writes: “In reply to your letter of January 10, I venture to express the opinion that speech comes first. There may be speech without lip-reading, while lip-reading is, except in a few irregular cases, impossible without speech. During a day, a speaking deaf person generally will be understood by more people than he himself will be able to lip-read. But lip-reading, although necessarily limited within a narrower space than speech, is of incalculable worth in the daily home life, and for most orally taught deaf, also to a great extent in the intercourse with strangers. Speech without lip-reading may be said to be to the deaf an imperfect gift.”

Mr. H. LORRAINE TRACY, of the Louisiana School, writes as follows: “For those who are capable of speaking intelligibly and who will speak when away from school, speech is of greater value. I make this latter qualification, because I know that as a rule the deaf do not practice what

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turns, and greater ease in making his already difficult way through the business world, if he can ask questions, express his opinions, assert his rights, and make his wants known verbally. Answers can often be given by a quick gesture or by 'natural signs' even by the uninitiated, so that resort to pen and pencil is not always necessary in getting a reply, whereas, if his accomplishment were wholly confined to lip-reading, and he were obliged to write his remarks and questions when signs would not be understood, so much time would be lost and so much impatience manifested that the benefits and enjoyment of lip-reading would be marred.

"Occasion arises oftener for the deaf to speak than for lip-reading to come into use. The self-confident deaf speaker uses the gift of speech voluntarily. For the practice of lip-reading he is of necessity forced to depend upon having others talk to him, and this—to their condemnation be it said—all hearing people are not by any means willing and thoughtful enough to do. Many expert lip-readers find to their bitter disappointment that there is absolute refusal on the part of the many—rather than the few—to give them a fair chance to exercise the accomplishment they have been at so much pains to acquire. It is 'too much trouble' to make the slight effort or to take the time, perhaps, and as long as this prejudice exists, it must be taken into consideration in comparing the direct benefits derived by the deaf from the two helpful acquisitions.

"The enjoyment of the advantages gained from speech depends upon the individual efforts of the deaf themselves. Since those to whom they address their conversation altogether refuse to listen, they are able to assert themselves, and to turn their talent to a useful purpose, rather than to use it as a latent force for use in emergency. Lip-reading, on the other hand, depends upon the willingness

of others to talk to the deaf, and such people are not to be found everywhere, for lip-readers are as yet a novelty. Reading and close observation enable us to post ourselves fully in daily affairs even though we have not the benefit always of the conversation of others. What we do not know we can acquire easily if we have speech at our tongue's end. Therefore, while personally I benefit almost equally from both speech and lip-reading, were I to be deprived of either, I believe I could make my way more readily with the aid of speech alone, and I make my declaration in its favor on the sole basis of usefulness—not taking into consideration the happiness and the social enjoyments and benefits which lip-reading places within our reach."

In conclusion, the following letter of Mr. A. FARRAR, Jr., of Leeds, England, the favorite pupil of Arnold, and able reviser of his work on the education of the deaf, gives a lucid exposition of the relative value of the two accomplishments: "The fact that speech and lip-reading are not of equal value to the deaf in the intercourse of life is one which has so long been familiar to me from experience that I have much pleasure in answering your question, which of these two accomplishments is of the most value to the oral deaf.

"I believe the experience of the oral deaf in regard to speech and lip-reading, considered separately, may be classed under one or other of the following heads:

"1. Their speech may be so good and intelligible and their capacity for lip-reading so highly developed that the two balance each other and so work in unison. They are then of equal value. This is the highest ideal that can be aimed at and reached, implying a degree of facility in mutual oral intercourse between the oral deaf and their hearing friends that falls little short of that between hearing people.

"2. Their speech may be good and intelligible, but their capacity for lip-reading relatively limited and its

value dependent on circumstances. Speech is then of the most value.

“3. Their speech may be poor and not always intelligible, but their capacity for lip-reading may be relatively high. In this case, however, it does not necessarily follow that lip-reading is of the most value.

“4. Their speech and lip-reading may each be so poor as to be of little or no social value, at any rate beyond a very limited circle.

“The condition described in the first of these classes is more or less ideal, and I believe is hardly, if ever, fully realized in actual social practice, and then usually only in certain circumstances, as between teacher and pupil at school and in the intimate intercourse of the family, social, or business circles, in which the oral deaf are accustomed to move.

“Leaving the fourth class out of consideration, I believe the experiences of the majority of the oral deaf would be found to fall under the second and third classes, and especially in the second. My own experience comes under this—the second—class, at any rate so far as intercourse with the world at large is concerned, for much of my own intimate intercourse may fairly come under the first class.

“But taking the widest possible view of the matter, if the question is whether speech or lip-reading is of the most value under all the circumstances of life, then I have no hesitation in saying that speech is of the most value. I may illustrate this as follows: Suppose an oral deaf person is brought into contact with, say, fifty—or any number—different persons, including both intimates and strangers; if his speech is fairly good and intelligible, the probability is that most of these fifty persons will understand him readily enough in the ordinary matters of daily life. On the other hand, each of these fifty persons will exhibit differences—often considerable—in

his mode of speech, and consequently our deaf person's capacity for lip-reading will not be equal to understanding as many of his hearing interlocutors as understand him. He will readily understand a certain number, others with more or less facility, others with more difficulty or not at all. Such has in fact been my experience. Thus it may well happen that while an oral deaf person may be fairly well understood by no inconsiderable number of people, his capacity for understanding them, on the other hand, may range from perfect lip-reading with some of them down to utter inability to read the lips of some others. It is this personal equation, as I think I may call it in this connection, which renders speech a comparatively certain, and lip-reading a comparatively uncertain, mode of communication, so that, speaking generally, speech is the element in the intercourse of the oral deaf that remains constant.

There is another factor which tells largely in favor of speech as of more value than lip-reading. If the deaf speaker's speech is good and intelligible, it is directly available and, so to speak, strikes home at once; whereas with lip-reading, the hearing speaker has to speak slowly and distinctly, and address himself specially to his deaf interlocutor. The ordinary conversation of other people amongst themselves is scarcely, if at all, followed by the oral deaf.

As a practical consequence of this fact, if an oral deaf person casually meets a stranger with whom he enters into communication, then, if his speech is fairly good and intelligible, he cannot only make himself understood, but, what is of importance, can explain his own situation, and place his interlocutor in a position to communicate either by lip-reading, writing, or manual spelling, as the experience of the moment may determine to be most convenient. On the other hand if the deaf speaker cannot

make himself understood, he simply finds himself in a 'fix' and cannot make any progress at all, so that, however high his capacity for lip-reading may be, it will not, as will easily be apparent, avail him much in his intercourse with the stranger, and he is not very much better off than the silent deaf. So also on the many occasions in daily life, when the oral deaf are doing business in the shops, hotels, railways, and such like circumstances, it will be found that it is clear and intelligible speech that is really indispensable, and will usually suffice to secure all that is wanted without any great call being made on their capacity for lip-reading.

"In answering your question I have considered it chiefly from the social standpoint. In general, lip-reading is of the most value in the school, while speech is of the most value in ordinary life. This arises from the fact that in the former case it is necessary for a number of the deaf to follow the lips of one hearing person—the teacher—while in ordinary life one deaf person has to make himself understood by any number of hearing people, not collectively, of course, but individually. It may not be irrelevant to remark that many, even oral, teachers have erroneous ideas as to the relations of speech and lip-reading, some even regarding the latter as the backbone of the oral method, strangely ignoring the fact that lip-reading derives whatever value and validity it possesses from speech. You may teach a deaf-mute to speak only and not practice lip-reading at all, but you cannot teach him to read the lips only without speech. I know that there are cases of deaf-mutes who, although they have not learned to speak, nevertheless can read the lips with some success, but they are the exceptions that prove the rule. Lip-reading divorced from speech is simply a set of arbitrary signs, for it has not the natural or intuitive value which arises from the deaf speaker's consciousness that the facial signs he

reads are the inevitable effects of the organic movements of speech which he has already learned to produce in himself.

“So far as the question concerns the work of the teacher, while he should aim at developing and employing lip-reading to the utmost, it is of still greater importance that he should secure a clear, free, and intelligible articulation. It may be noted also that excellence in this respect is largely dependent on the teacher’s ability, but lip-reading depends more on the scholar’s own ability—a fact Bonet long ago remarked.

“We cannot hope in all cases to secure the condition of things described in the first class of experiences, but much, very much, will be gained if the speech of the deaf is only good and intelligible, and it may then be left to their hearing fellows to employ lip-reading, writing, or manual spelling; according to the capacity of the deaf and the nature of the personal equation, to follow each individual by one or other of these means. In such circumstances speech is clearly seen to be of the most value.”

PAUL LANGE,

Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

THE IMPORTANCE OF EARLY TRAINING FOR THE DEAF-BLIND.*

DEAR SIR: In reply to your question as to the advantage or disadvantage of systematic training for a blind-deaf child under eight, I must say it depends entirely on the home environment. If this affords opportunities for the right sense training at the right time, then home is the best school for cultivating the senses and developing the instincts by reason of its simple round of household duties;

* A letter addressed to Mr. William Wade, of Oakmont, Pennsylvania.

cooking and housework always appeal to a child's interest and hold his attention because of the vital interest he takes in eating and sleeping and in those around him. The normal child *sees* and *hears* all these things and desires at once to take part with mama or cook; he also imitates all these household occupations in his play with dolls, sand, or anything that falls in his way, and in the absence of play-things will even carry on the whole operation in imagination with a great display of pantomime and babbling.

By a normal child I mean one with this healthy brain action. To produce this happy, playful, imitative effect it is necessary to have the right nourishment for the brain in the way of a pure blood supply. Sensations are the foundation of all mental development. There can be no brain action, no ideas, no image forming, without the aid of the senses, and the most important senses for gaining these sensations in infancy are the senses of *sight* and *hearing*. The sense of *touch*, which contributes so much to our knowledge in later life, is at this time utterly helpless without the aid of sight or hearing, or some outside influence to guide and direct it. For this reason the blind-deaf child needs constant care and attention at this period to bring about every possible opportunity for producing sensations. Even if the mothers could be brought to understand that everything the child does with a purpose in performing these simple and homely duties of life is a part, and a necessary part, of education, I doubt whether their household and social duties would leave them time for the slow, laborious process of putting a blind-deaf child through these required motions.

In the first seven years the child is but a bundle of instincts and perpetual motion. Instincts, whose only excuse for being is the formation of useful habits in becoming familiar with the outside world, and the boundless energy, sometimes wrongly called superfluous, are the means nature

provides for bringing him in contact with the surrounding world. Instinct says, Touch, taste, handle all things in sight, and the normal child proceeds to do it then and there.

These first seven years are the most important, so far as his future development is concerned. The normal child gains physically in this time not only one-half of his adult height and one-third of his adult weight, but he has gained more knowledge of the external world, in proportion, than he will gain at any other period of his existence; in fact, his entire life will be shaped by the trend of the mind images formed at this time.

The defective child, by which I mean, in this instance, the blind, deaf, or blind-deaf, is handicapped in making more than partial experiments with nature or giving vent to his play instincts; the blind from lack of opportunity in his circumscribed existence, the deaf from lack of interpretation and expression, and the blind-deaf from lack of the knowledge-gaining senses, sight and hearing. True, the blind-deaf have that most primitive sense which is the basis of all others, touch, of which Dr. Tracy says that "as a knowledge-giving sense it stands very high." This assertion, however, is based on the assumption that the present-day educated blind-deaf were born so and gained all their sense impressions through that of touch. This is not the case at all. There is a vast difference between the congenitally deaf-blind and those losing sight and hearing in early infancy. To one born with sight and hearing, though these faculties may be lost just as intelligent speech begins to appear, there ever remain the mental images of light and shadow, waving grasses and rippling brooks, floating clouds and blue distances, and the innumerable shapes and sounds flitting across the consciousness. The long, dark, silent years, with all their maddening effects, cannot wholly blot these out. They are shut away in

memory's sealed chamber until the magic touch of associated ideas causes them to spring into existence, Minerva like, full armed and quivering with new and comprehensive life. Such was the case with Helen Keller, Elizabeth Robins, Tommy Stringer, and other noted blind-deaf of the day.

As to the other class, born blind and deaf, of whom there are probably less than ten in the whole world, the sensation of light has never impressed their benighted faculties; no sound has ever broken the eternal stillness of their existence; no form has presented itself to their touch in its entirety; even the food they eat and the loving mother that cares for them are not sensed as a whole; therefore they have not gained the first mental image to build an idea on.

I agree with the assertion that passive touch experiences in the beginning, in yielding the young child pleasure or pain, may develop the faculties to some extent; but that the sense of touch "contributes earlier and more largely than any of the other sense experiences to the development of his faculties and to his gradual acquaintanceship with the world of objects by which he is surrounded," I cannot agree. The "world of objects" appeals to the sight, the world of language to the ear, only the detail is left to touch.

The first impression of mother to the seeing child is something round and white; the sight and hearing soon connect the touch impressions. To the blind-deaf child she ever remains the impressions that touch gives of the breast, clothing, and finger ends. Without intelligent assistance in cultivating the sense of touch, the blind-deaf child remains ever in an idiotic condition. If this instruction is put off seven or eight years until the child is of free school age, the instincts of childhood—nature's provisions for gaining the necessary sensations for inducing thought—have waxed and waned without fruition; the impetus to touch, taste, or smell having died

out with the instinct, the child is left in an apathetic condition, and becomes an easy prey for the stormier passions that take possession at the next period of life. For this reason it is necessary to make the most of the few remaining years of childhood in developing the remaining senses and laying up sense impressions, as a basis of future knowledge.

The instincts of childhood play such an important part for weal or woe in the child's life that it is impossible to overestimate their worth. Take the play instinct, for instance, and one object that excites it, sand, said to be an inheritance from our cave-dwelling ancestors. Be that as it may, it is a very important part of a child's education and one that is lost entirely with the blind-deaf without an instructor. In playing in the sand the child comes in contact with a new element. He soon discovers that when mixed with water it is capable of being subjected to his will—not a small item in itself. He *remembers* the process of cake-making, he *imagines* the sand to be dough, and he *imitates* the kneading and making into cakes. He has expressed a *mind image* in visible form. Memory, imitation, comparison, judgment, expression, are all brought out in play. Even the simple joy of the mud-pie stage, the free use of limbs, the active touch, are developing the faculties in many ways we older children know not of. Everything done by the child with a purpose plays an important part in his development.

Instincts are queer inheritances and their suppression or neglect is dangerous. Take one instinct not even considered worthy of a moment's toleration—the boy's instinct for fighting. It is often inhibited by fear of the rod or of damage to self in personal encounter. But is it a good thing to inhibit or suppress it? Cowardice is the inevitable result, and seven devils are in possession where one was before. Would it not be better to cultivate the fighting

instinct along the line of more legitimate trials of strength, running, wrestling, and other gymnastic feats? It is needed all through youth for overcoming the hard lessons in school life and fighting the battles of life afterward.

To return to the case in hand. I hope I have made clear the necessity of having instruction begin with the blind-deaf child in early infancy, earlier even than the kindergarten age for the normal child, while the body and mind are plastic and instincts are ripe for sense training, that he may not miss the joy of playing and experimenting through all these beautiful instructive but destructive years; that he may be given every advantage with the few senses left him to fill his mind with images—sense impressions made sure—for his future use. For if this time is lost in vague longings and fruitless efforts the siege must begin at a later stage under more trying circumstances, with dulled senses, and with a new and stronger set of instincts to battle with. And robbed of that joyousness, that overflow of healthy spirits, that finds vent in play, the task is all but insuperable, and such a late beginning will in all probability result in a lack of originality and spontaneity of mental freedom.

What I have said or tried to say holds good not only for the blind-deaf but for all children as well; only the defective must have special attention at an early period to overcome as much as possible the obstacles of defective senses. I do not mean to say that the deaf with all possible care can ever get an idea of sound or the blind an idea of color. The blind-deaf, that is the congenitally blind-deaf, will never get an idea of *green* fields and *murmuring* brooks, but they will get the idea as a whole, colorless and soundless though it must ever be, if the proper means are used to bring it about.

I have gone on at great length to answer a question that should have been answered with "yes" or "no," but you

see there was an "if," which you know far better than I have expressed it.

Sincerely yours,

E. M. BARRETT,

Teacher of the Deaf-Blind in the Texas School, Austin, Texas.

A CLEAR VOICE FROM ACROSS THE SEA.

A PEDAGOGUE, even a German pedagogue, seldom succeeds in killing two birds with one stone. But Mr. F. Werner, of the Institution for Deaf-Mutes at Stade, performs the difficult feat. In his pamphlet, "The German Method and the Classification of Deaf-Mutes according to Mental Ability, with a Plan of Division for the Province of Hannover,"* Mr. Werner does two things exceedingly well. He tells clearly, briefly, and with earnestness born of conviction, just what he wants done in the province of Hannover. He has also produced a little work which should be of absorbing interest to every teacher of the deaf this round world over.

The great value of Mr. Werner's pamphlet lies in its stimulating suggestiveness. This is the more remarkable because concerning the subject in which we are all interested—language teaching—he utters for the most part only old, old truths. But they are truths, nevertheless, which it were well to cry from every institution roof-top three times a day the year round. Moreover, he writes these old truths along with his new suggestions uncommonly well. I regret much that I wholly lack the skill to reproduce in English the author's forceful, captivating style. The great literary doctrine, "Style is the man," seems

*"Die deutsche Methode und die Teilung der Taubstummen nach der geistigen Befähigung, nebst einem Teilungsplan für die Provinz Hannover," in "Viertes Programm der Provinzial-Taubstummen-Anstalt zu Stade." Stade: 1901. 8vo, pp. 86.

verified in Mr. Werner's pages. The reader feels, at every step, that he has to do with a vigorous, original, charming, and, withal, perfectly honest and fearless personality.

Many American teachers will disagree radically, as does the writer, with Mr. Werner's conclusion that signs must be dispensed with as a means of instruction even in the special schools advocated for backward deaf-mutes. In fact, the language-teaching, language-loving reader will, very likely, disagree with many of his conclusions and deny many of his premises. But he will be stirred up—a state of mind on the teacher's part far more favorable to the advance of deaf-mute education than uniform acquiescence in an author's views. Mr. Werner makes one think. He pricks bubbles. He sends many truths straight home. Older readers among American teachers of the deaf, looking through his pages, will be reminded of that sanest, most gifted literary champion of the deaf, whose memory should be kept forever green—Mr. Richard Salter Storrs, of the old mother school at Hartford.

Mr. Werner knows how to write an enlightening preface, an accomplishment by no means general. He accounts for the fact that the proposition to segregate backward deaf-mutes received but little attention when first made (in 1871) by citing a number of pedagogical surprises in Germany about that time.

“First,” he says, “Heidsiek sprang forth as an able advocate for signs to aid the new measure. Next, up popped from the sea of oblivion the almost forgotten ‘auricular exercises,’ garbed in the imposing robe of Science. Then (and the last apparition in the world one would have expected to see) Göpfert and others emerged from the dusty lumber-room of the past, bearing as a present to the new century the writing and manual-alphabet methods—a pair of cast-off, antiquated crutches, which, they promised, would help along the somewhat limping German method amazingly.”

Mr. Werner, in his preface, divides his subject under three headings—

(a) Examination of the difficulties which a deaf-mute must overcome to acquire spoken language.

(b) Reasons in favor of the proposed segregation of backward deaf-mutes.

(c) Criticism, or review, of different methods which might be adopted in the schools of Hannover

He begins with persons fortunate, or unfortunate, enough to possess all their senses intact. He examines the sense of hearing and analyzes its relation to normal speech and to normal comprehension of language. The representation of the sound of words and sentences is, he asserts, the habitual mode of thought of hearing persons. To the educated, he adds, the optical representation of print and script is possible as an acquired mode of thought. His later plea for written language would be greatly strengthened, I think, had he dwelt more at length upon this habit of optical representation. Such a habit is, perhaps, far more common among hearing people than he seems to believe. Holding up a brain process is very much like trying to catch a flea. One frantic clutch out of fifty may bring down the tiny elusive game. Since one's own, after all, is the only brain one can really know even a little about, a personal reference may be pardoned. In my own case, the eye has been better trained than the ear. Except where places, persons, and a few striking common nouns or tragic events are visualized in pictures, I know, beyond all doubt, that I think, habitually, in printed words. Now, if years of eye practice can bring about that optical language-thought result in a hearing person, it would seem to follow that the constant seeing of written language during school life would have a similar effect upon a deaf-mute. The advantage of a print or script mode of thought to the hearing person is not great. To the deaf-mute,

however, it is, obviously, an untold treasure—a pearl of great price worth selling all else to find.

Mr. Werner shows with much force the close analogy between the acquirement, by a hearing adult, of a foreign language and the hard struggle which a deaf-mute must make to gain even a partial mastery of any word language. Here, too, one wishes that he had gone a step farther and said, in his own forceful, emphatic way, what ought to be said to every candidate for a teacher's position in a school for the deaf: "No one need apply who has not acquired by long and conscious effort a good working knowledge of at least one living foreign language." Only the teacher who has, himself, been exasperated and bewildered by the total depravity of foreign parts of speech can deal leniently yet illuminatingly with the mistakes of his deaf pupils, and out of those mistakes and the chastened memory of his own linguistic blunders secure from his classes the best language results. There can be no intelligent mental leadership without sympathy born of a common experience. That is why deaf teachers of the deaf often succeed where hearing teachers fail.

As poor little Pip in "Great Expectations" was forcibly "brought up by hand" in spite of the fact that he would greatly have preferred a less strenuous mode of upbringing, so Mr. Werner seems to share the general oralist opinion that the deaf-mute must be restored to society, a talking member, whether he wants to be or not. The attitude of society in the matter is not referred to. An article on that subject written, in joint authorship, by an unprejudiced hearing person and a bright deaf-mute would, probably, make interesting and instructive reading.

The sign language seems to be a sort of Banquo's ghost to Mr. Werner. From one end of his valuable pamphlet to the other the sign spectre appears. It will not down. Mr. Werner's truthfulness is magnificent. This German

opponent of signs, arguing for their banishment, puts the case for signs more strongly, more relentlessly, than it has ever been put, perhaps, by any American advocate. To compare a school for feeble-minded deaf-mutes to a paradise, either lost or regained, would be an impossible flight for the imagination. If, however, the comparison were legitimately dreamable one might say, truly enough, that the sign language is the hero—the Satan—of Mr. Werner's epic. Listen to this acknowledgment of the might of the Arch Enemy. Not from wicked America, honeycombed with combined-system schools, but straight across the sea from Germany—the home of pure oralism—comes this testimony to the inherent power of the sign language:

“Even when signs are most strictly forbidden to the deaf-mute we need not, therefore, believe that they are laid aside. Though we should bind the hands of the deaf-mute pupil, his soul, which no man can fetter, would still express itself to itself in signs.” (Paragraph 59, page 40.)

It is but fair to give Mr. Werner's explanation, immediately following, as to why signs, nevertheless, should be forbidden. He adds:

“The use of the prohibition lies elsewhere. If signs are allowed the deaf-mute will join a sign to every new word he learns. In doing this he will be aided by his older school-comrades, who are only too ready, out of their rich treasure-house, to furnish him with further aid in the art of sign-making. In this way the sign language will be so strengthened that it will for a long time be a successful rival of word language.”

Verily, “one touch of nature makes the whole world kin.” Youthful deaf-mute knaves are not all Yankees, after all. So big Hans, Ludwig, and Wilhelm, like American Tom, Dick, and Harry, possess “a rich treasure-house” of signs which, after the generous fashion of their American cousins, they are more than glad to share with the

aspiring small-fry of the school. Some of us will be pleased, though pained, to know that fact. The knowledge of it will add unction to our frequent, and not always gratifyingly responded-to appeal: "Try to use word language every day with the little children."

Unfortunately, perhaps, for his peace of mind as a pedagogue, though, one feels sure, most fortunately for the pupils lucky enough to be under his charge, Mr. Werner is a psychologist. That is one reason, possibly, why he is so honest. Ananias is not so common a name among scientists as in some other more pretentiously righteous professions. Near the beginning of his little book Mr. Werner goes at some length into the psychology of the deaf-mute's mind in its relation to signs. (Paragraphs 25-28, pages 26 and 27.) He proves conclusively that the sign language is the only language that can properly be called "natural" to the deaf-mute; that by it alone the three psychological necessities of any language—perception, apperception, and reproduction—are possible. "In signs," he says, "the deaf-mute is able not only to express his own thoughts, but he is also enabled to see the expression of his thought and to prove or disprove its accuracy." Here he draws a parallel between the psychological language experience of the hearing person and the deaf-mute by referring to paragraphs 7 and 8, pages 21-24: "Speech is not only a means of communication to others but also to ourselves. We can hardly imagine a language so constructed that we could not control our own expression in it. Normally, thought, hearing, and utterance rest on oral representations. Following Forchhammer, we will call this union of the three the perfect agreement or congruence of perception, thought, and reproduction."

Crossing again to paragraph 26, page 26, Mr. Werner concludes in double-leaded type: "The deaf-mute, therefore, occupies toward the sign language exactly the same

position as does the normal hearing person toward oral language."

This frank admission is followed by a well put, manly statement as to why, in Mr. Werner's opinion, it is the teacher's duty to go directly against Nature in educating the deaf-mute

"Without question the simplest easiest method would be to educate the deaf-mute in his mother language of signs. But there are two hindrances to so doing. In the first place it would be necessary that the sign language, by thousands of years of use, should have acquired a definite structure in order to be able to compete with spoken language. Secondly, the deaf-mute child, from the beginning, would be obliged to live in a world made up of deaf-mutes.

Under the requirements above-named the deaf-mute could be given an education which would correspond exactly to his nature. Then we might appropriately quote Lessing's famous saying, 'Education gives a man nothing which he might not draw from himself, but it gives it to him more quickly and easily.' As the case stands, however, we teachers are obliged to give to the deaf-mute child something which he could not, in a thousand years, draw from himself, namely, a word language. Therefore every method of deaf-mute instruction is and must remain in a certain sense unnatural."

There is much truth in this eloquent passage. To some of us, though, Mr. Werner's two hindrances will not seem wholly insuperable. I, for one, should like to hear a good combined system teacher enter into a lengthy "along the line of least resistance" pedagogical argument with him.

Surely an author who can so skillfully draw parallels might draw one at this point between the use that is made of a semi-mute's speech—the remnants of his mother tongue—and the employment of signs with congenitally deaf beginners to build up that "word language" which, we shall

all grant with Mr. Werner, is essential to the deaf-mute's social salvation. Here an experience related by an oral teacher may not be out of place.

A well-grown semi-mute girl entered this teacher's class. Before deafness appeared the child's adoring family had addressed her, habitually, in baby-talk. When she entered school the girl used, apparently from infant choice, only one vowel, a sort of double *a*, *ǎǎ*. Combining this peculiar vowel sound with a few consonants she talked in a torrent. But what she meant by her gibberish was, to quote Mark Twain, a mystery between herself and her Creator. Her teacher fathomed the mystery; she actually learned to understand and to use the girl's outlandish dialect. With a patience for which may the Lord reward her—the Institution authorities never did; they seldom do—the teacher, out of the pupils' gibberish, at last built up a splendid edifice of written language. The girl's dialect was worse than useless, so far as teaching her speech was concerned. It was decidedly injurious. Her voice was always disagreeable. Her utterance was never clear. But she possessed in written language, which she used fluently, the one great requisite of the deaf-mute—a word language.

Granted that, if every theory and act were carried to its logical conclusion, this would be a more topsy-turvy world than it now is. Nevertheless it is well, always, to be as logical as possible. Now if it was worth while, as every oralist teacher will admit that it was, to preserve ideas embodied in what was, practically, the note of a sheep, why is it not equally worth while to utilize ideas (and they outnumber, in most cases, that girl's *ǎǎ* words a thousand to one) expressed in orderly signs? Such preservation of sign ideas is habitually practised in American combined-system schools with most gratifying results. Moreover, the signs which a deaf child may possess form no mechanical hindrance to ultimate correct speech, as do wrong positions

of the vocal organs, false pitch of voice, and other confusing remnants of former speech.

I would a thousand times rather teach a deaf child to talk who has never uttered a sound than to try to straighten out the neglected speech of a semi-mute." is the commonest expression in the world from articulation teachers. Why, then, if we are to be logical and if, as seems to be the sole contention of Mr. Werner's little book, oral speech really is the one thing of utmost importance to the deaf, should the non-understandable, or only partially understandable, semi-mute after entering school ever be allowed to open his mouth of his own volition? Why, if his speech concepts are wrong, should he not be forbidden all attempt to express himself in his higgledy-piggledy mother language, just as strictly as his congenitally deaf schoolfellow is commanded not to wiggle his poor little fingers (too often rapped by over-zealous oral teachers) in the quick-coming illuminating signs that crowd and jostle each other in their hurry to escape from his active, eager child brain? The homely old adage, "What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander," would seem to apply here.

Mr. Werner shows himself tender-hearted even in his severity toward signs. He believes firmly (paragraphs 61 and 62, p. 41) that "The first and undoubtedly the most effective measure that could be taken to raise the standard of our oral results would be, besides direct and constant speech association, to suppress signs. In a day-school, however, this cannot be done, because out of school-hours the deaf-mute pupils are not under our supervision; so a prohibition against the use of signs would amount to nothing. Through the inevitable punishment that must follow infringement of rules forbidding the use of signs, the disposition of the deaf-mute pupil would be embittered, and his character harmed. For what shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul?"

In the next paragraph Mr. Werner expresses the opinion that day-schools better prepare the deaf of the poorer class for actual life than do boarding-schools. In a boarding-school, he admits, an effort may be more successfully made to banish signs. But he adds: "I cannot quite overcome the feeling that we teachers of the deaf have no right to suppress by force this language which Nature herself has implanted within the deaf-mute. To do so is most certainly not an act of humanity nor of love, and—'Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels and have not love, I am become as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal.'"

The following paragraph (64, p. 42) shows even deeper feeling. The sentences in italics are double leaded in the original. "A defeated people will bear much injustice from a foreign conqueror. But the one injury most keenly felt is to be compelled to give up its oldest, most precious inheritance—its language. "From this point of view we can readily understand *the hostile attitude which adult deaf-mutes, as a body, exhibit toward the oral method.* If it were not absolutely necessary to emancipate deaf-mutes from signs, the adjective cruel would be too mild a word to characterize such an undertaking."

At this point Mr. Werner explains the position of the school at Stade in regard to signs. Instead of quoting from him, however, let us turn directly to the very interesting and clear report in the first part of the book containing Mr. Werner's paper—the Fourth Report of the Institution at Stade by the Director of the School, Mr. Schröder.

On page 4 Mr. Schröder says: "We have not relaxed our efforts to work against the development of the sign language and to prevent it from becoming a necessity to our pupils. On the other hand, we have striven earnestly to make speech an absolute necessity to them. In our instruction all signs, except of pantomime and action, were rigidly shut out. In all strictness the rule was car-

ried out that neither teachers nor pupils should be permitted to use signs in teaching hours. Also, we have tried at every opportunity to encourage the use of speech. Nevertheless, as soon as the pupils were by themselves they gladly supplemented their speech with natural signs. Entire banishment of signs is almost impossible, since the sign language corresponds so closely to the nature of the deaf-mute. Speech is, and must always remain, an artificial language to the deaf-mute. He will never learn to use it like a hearing person."

These frank words from Director Schröder make one respect the Stade school. Evidently Mr. Werner is not alone in his honesty.

The attitude of the adult deaf of Germany toward the oral method troubles Mr. Werner considerably. He says:

"In their congresses the adult deaf-mutes are invariably unanimous in recommending the co-ordinate use of signs with speech as means of instruction. The deaf-mute orators at these congresses are, almost without exception, persons who have made the language of words their habitual mode of thought—yet see their enthusiasm for signs."

It is decidedly worth while that we, as teachers of the deaf, should try to realize fully the important implications contained in Mr. Werner's statement. Let us analyze the paragraph.

A number, presumably quite a large number, of adult deaf-mutes are gathered together. The name unquestioningly granted to their gathering, "Congress," implies citizenship and habitual obedience to and understanding of the laws of the State. These deaf-mutes, therefore, are intelligent law-abiding citizens. Their chief orators, we are told, are persons who think in the language of words—the great test of culture, Mr. Werner has elsewhere declared. The object of the meeting is the promotion of

the best interests of the entire class to which they belong. Most of the members of the organization have been educated exclusively by the oral method. Personal experience in practical life out in the world has convinced these law-abiding, reputable, educated citizens that the total banishment of their natural language, signs, from the schools is a mistake. They unanimously and enthusiastically seek its reinstatement. The opinion and the recommendations of such persons as those above described should carry weight. If not, then the shame falls upon the schools. By denying the request, repeatedly made by collective assemblies of deaf-mutes, for the combined system of instruction, the pure oral schools practically say to their alumni: "You do not know what is best for your class. You are not capable of forming an intelligent opinion. You are only grown-up children. We gave you a little book-learning, and taught you to speak. Be content therewith. Our exclusively oral method makes no promise to turn out from its educational mills rational human beings capable of forming correct judgments. If that result be demanded, we have failed."

Mr. Werner's attempt to account for the enthusiasm for signs manifested by bright adult deaf-mutes jars somewhat his previous gloomy prophecies as to the baleful effect of signs on youthful brains. Of the adult deaf-mute advocates for signs he says: "As a matter of fact, their knowledge of signs really affects but little or not at all their habit of thinking in spoken words. But what a serious hindrance signs once were to their mental development, how they obstructed the flow of speech through the mind, did not when they were young enter their consciousness at all and, because of their peculiar organization, it is even now very hard for them to look at this question of signs objectively. Hence it comes that the adult deaf-mutes all see in Heidsiek the philosopher who has placed their

erroneous opinion upon a scientific basis " Mr. Werner then goes on to speak of Mr. Heidsiek's later "errors;" but that is another story.

To some of us the paragraph above quoted will seem the weakest in Mr. Werner's almost uniformly strong paper. His sentimental argument that these deaf-mutes did not realize when they were little the handicap of signs to the development of their speech does not hold water. Most of us can say as much as that concerning obstacles to our early education. For instance, I know that the sight of a shining blue lake through the open windows of the little district schoolhouse was "a serious hindrance" to my learning the multiplication table. But the school committee never thought of abolishing the lake on that account, and I did finally master the multiplication table, just as the little German deaf-mutes who grew up into orators gained the power to think in words in spite of the allurements of signs. Had it not been for my furtively frequent glances at the blessed, tranquil lake I'm sure mathematics would have killed me. Probably most of the voting deaf-mutes at the German congresses recall the bliss of bathing their cramped little minds in the pleasant lake of signs far more distinctly than Mr. Werner imagines.

The excellent things Mr. Werner says about language teaching are so interwoven with what he has to say of speech that it is hard to separate the two. Reviewing existing methods, he writes: "So far as producing successful results is concerned, the personality of the teacher is of far greater importance than any method, as we may see daily. A method which, used by one teacher brings astonishingly good results often seems to fail utterly in the hands of another who cannot, so to speak, warm up sufficiently to his colleagues' method to make its use effective. No rules and regulations, no schedule-prescribed methods, can compel a teacher to find happiness in his work. Joy

in teaching springs from insight and knowledge. Therefore we should all welcome gladly the variously expressed demand for wider culture on the part of those who seek to enter our profession."

Mr. Werner makes a capital distinction, in the language to be used habitually with deaf-mute pupils, between *Umgangssprache* and *Verkehrssprache*. He defines the two terms thus: "By *Umgangssprache* I mean colloquial, not always quite grammatical language, including even occasional pleonasms and some slang words, many idioms, and terms that through tone or accent usually receive peculiar meaning. By *Verkehrssprache* I mean every-day language, grammatically expressed in short, simple sentences suitable for conversation, compositions, and schoolroom tasks generally, in one word—easy book language." This latter form of language he would make habitual use of in school life.

A careful distinction similar to that which Mr. Werner makes is needed in some American schools. Many classes suffer from a hodgepodge of idiomatic language too indiscriminately used. To be quite honest, I ruined a class that way myself once. Mr. Werner proves pretty conclusively that the "natural method" is unnatural to deaf-mutes, although, to a limited extent, he would allow it value.

Mr. Werner deprecates all ambitious attempts to compare language results attained in schools for the deaf with those secured with hearing pupils. He says: "Those theorists who keenly strive, by any method, to make their deaf pupils gain by strenuous effort the language treasures that fall abundantly and unasked into the lap of every normal hearing child, should pause and ask themselves seriously whether they are not placing too heavy a burden upon the little deaf child. They should consider whether their ambition is not causing them to be too harsh with

the young learners. Whenever I hear of pre-eminent results achieved by this or that institution for deaf-mutes and of the discipline which rules such a school, I say to myself, "Would you, without hesitation, entrust your own child to the care of that institution?" Almost any of us, I think, would entrust children, unquestioningly, to Mr. Werner's care.

In regard to written language, Mr. Werner quotes Gopfert: "Written language is, for the deaf-mute, the most easily learned, the most surely grasped, and, therefore, the most easily understood form of word-language." He adds: "Against the correctness of this opinion no valid argument has thus far been brought. Instruction through written language united with the use of the manual alphabet would be for both teacher and deaf pupil a thousand times easier than instruction by speech and writing." A thousand times more satisfactory, too, some of us think, not only to teacher and pupil but to the world in general. There are few hearing persons (outside the walls of an oral school) who would not prefer to carry on a conversation with a deaf-mute by writing rather than by speech and lip-reading. As an aid to the highest culture, no less than to the convenience of every-day life, written language stands pre-eminent. For one, after more than a score of years spent in teaching the deaf, I can truly say that had I as many children as "the old woman who lived in a shoe," I should, unlike that distracted parent, know, definitely, one thing to do—that is, provided they were deaf, I should have them all taught by the written-language sign-auxiliary method.

Mr. Werner realizes the difficulty of acquiring speech without the aid of hearing. He does not attempt to gloss over the manifold hopelessly confusing perplexities of lip-reading. He analyzes both processes pitilessly. To economize space I must condense here in quoting from him. I

shall try conscientiously, however, to keep close to his thought.

Hearing persons, he says in effect, seldom think how speech feels, that is of the physical sensations caused by breath, tongue pressure, nasality, etc. The positions of the vocal organs when sounds are uttered are, for the most part, unknown to hearing speakers. To the deaf-mute, on the contrary, these physical sensations are all there is to it. They are all he has to go by when he attempts to speak. He cannot correct his own speech by these sensations, for the slightest deviation from the correct position of any speech organ produces a wrong effect, of which the speaker, for lack of hearing, is wholly unconscious. Furthermore, he cannot receive speech in the form in which he feels his own utterances. He must learn to translate, as it were, the lip-motions of others into the physical sensations he himself experiences when he tries to speak. Hence the three primal necessities of language—perception, thought, and reproduction—are all different and can be brought into any sort of unity only by a strenuous effort of the brain. In view of these physiological and psychological difficulties it is small wonder that Mr. Werner adds:

“At the first glance it seems incredible, almost monstrous, that the deaf-mute pupil should be forced to make these vague speech sensations, of whose very existence most people are quite unconscious, the groundwork of all his thinking. Nearly all the method-makers in our profession either ignore this psychological difficulty or they seek to veil it in high-sounding phrases and absurd assertions, foolishly imagining that thereby they are rendering the oral method a service. They err, for their extravagant absurdities in the hands of opponents prove effective weapons against the oral method.”

Mr. Werner is very earnest about this question of language which shall be of practical service to the deaf after

tain. Hardly one-half of the sounds can really be read from the lips; the other half must be guessed at through the lip-reader's general familiarity with visual combinations of sound-elements "

And yet, after all this, Mr. Werner enthusiastically waves the oralist colors. He almost shakes the oralist banner in our faces. "Thank God," he exclaims, professing to reject sentimentalism, "that the German method, in itself and through itself, is strong enough to need no artificial setting to put it in its proper light. The oral method needs no defender. Its strength is and will remain the great fact that it teaches the deaf-mute to speak. Any further commendation of it than that is quite superfluous. What needs to be shown is the fact that speech for the deaf-mute can only be and continue a success when it is kept constantly in the foreground. In order to show this, however, it is necessary that we should face, clearly and squarely, all the weaknesses and the difficulties of the German method. What conquering might the German method bears within itself is shown by the immense progress which, though against great opposition, it has made during the last few years in the United States of North America. The German method now leads all others in North America. See the *Organ* for 1901, page 124 "

Here Mr. Werner, in all good faith, I believe, copies from the *Organ* a statistical table the figures of which purport to show the oral method as ranking first in the United States. Of this astounding table but one thing can be said: It bears out to perfection the old assertion that "falsehood may be classed, progressively according to its iniquity, under three headings, lies, damned lies, and statistics." The jugglery by which such results are attained has been exposed in the *Annals* more than once. Readers interested in tracing out the erroneous statement which Mr. Werner innocently quotes are referred to an article by Mr. Olof

Hanson on "Comparative Statistics of Methods of Educating the Deaf in the United States," published in the *Annals* for September, 1902.

"Why," the reader of Mr. Werner's admirable, interesting, and incisive little work keeps asking himself, "does this keen-sighted author believe so firmly in a method which he has shown to be riddled with holes?"

"The oral method teaches the deaf-mute to speak." There you have it. Mr. Werner believes, evidently, that in speech alone lies the salvation of deaf-mutes. His devotion almost equals that of the noble Jesuit missionaries of whom it was said that they "jeopardized their souls to save souls."

It is illuminating, sometimes, to consider points that are omitted from an argument. The negative side of Mr. Werner's admirable pamphlet also furnishes food for thought. He makes no strong plea for anything beyond bread-and-butter education for deaf-mutes. Making them appreciate "the best that has been thought and said in the world" - in one word, culture, does not seem much to enter into his thought concerning deaf-mute pupils. Perhaps he might answer this charge by a reference to page 31, paragraph 39, where he states explicitly that in his present publication he leaves semi-mutes entirely out of the problems discussed. But culture is by no means a treasure within the grasp of semi-mutes only. It sometimes happens in a class graduated from the College at Washington that the highest honors in scholarship are carried off by congenitally deaf young men and women instead of by their semi-mute classmates. "The oral method teaches deaf-mutes to talk." The combined system, its advocates claim, teaches deaf-mutes to think and to appreciate. Human speech is for this world. Human thought and appreciation, one hopes, are for eternity.

It is not quite clear just why semi-mutes should be left

out of Mr. Werner's valuable consideration. He refuses to call the semi-mute a deaf-mute (page 31), which is proper enough, perhaps. Nevertheless, the instruction of semi-mutes is inextricably bound up with that of deaf-mutes, and promises to be so for years to come. No review of methods, therefore, can quite cover the ground which leaves out difficulties connected with the instruction of semi-mutes. Among feeble-minded deaf pupils in most schools, semi-mutes have a flattering numerical majority.

Mr. Werner does not tell us quite as much as we should like to know about the experience of orally taught pupils in Germany after leaving their alma mater. He does tell us that the persons who love those deaf-mutes boys and girls best, those who would, naturally, be most patient in listening and replying to their labored articulation--their parents--are too busy and too tired to make long 'speeches' to them. Now if busy parents find it exhausting and wearisome to make their own orally taught children understand, how about the world at large? Does the German employer depend, usually, upon speech, writing, or natural gestures when intercourse with his deaf work-people becomes necessary?

Mr. Werner admits a score of times that signs are the deaf-mutes' natural environment. Does the German deaf-mute, after leaving school, fall back into a state of nature, frequently even to the extent of marrying a deaf-mute? Mr. Werner gives us no statistics on this last point. I cannot help suspecting, however, in view of the admissions which he does make, that a case which came under my own observation in America may be typical of conditions in Germany also.

About ten years ago, during my summer vacation, I was visited by a bright, pretty girl recently graduated from an oral school. She sought information regarding the College at Washington. She told me, with tears in her eyes, that

she longed for a higher education but hesitated to come to Gallaudet College lest her speech and lip-reading might suffer through signs allowed there. I assured her that, should she decide to enter Gallaudet, her speech and lip-reading would be carefully watched over by a woman universally conceded to be one of the best articulation teachers in the United States. I told her that other competent teachers would give her special oral work. I could not promise, however, as she evidently desired me to, that she would never see a sign—still less that she would never use one; for I felt sure that, to one of her bright, lively, social nature, the sign language would probably become most fascinatingly illuminative. I knew her of old when, Mr. Werner might say, the evil of signs had not yet penetrated her consciousness. I remembered well how fast her little white fingers flew whenever my back was turned. Sometimes I rapped her fingers with a rattan, for I was young then and a most zealous oralist. Oftener I made her shut her eyes as a punishment, until an observer, not in sympathy with my disciplinary attempts to suppress signs, remarked one day, "Wouldn't it be easier to have her wear blinders, like a horse, all the time?" Possibly my successor found some better way. I never heard. At any rate, by the time her school course was ended, B. was thoroughly imbued with the proper oralist spirit of contemptuous hatred toward signs.

"I shall not come to Washington," she exclaimed in her rather uncertain voice, which made people always turn to look at her, "I hate signs!"

Her black eyes flashed and she stood there quivering like an electrically indignant little pussy-cat who sees a big dog in the distance.

Three years later I read an account of her marriage to a deaf mute—a former schoolfellow. Both B. and her orally taught husband now figure prominently in all the local deaf-mute merry-makings. They seem to be having,

for the first time in their lives probably, a thoroughly good time in the world.

Isn't it rather a conceited attitude, after all, this claiming that a deaf-mute's highest welfare consists in his mingling with hearing people? Most of us, certainly, don't find each other sufficiently good company to justify any such proud assumption.

The world is hard enough for us all, deaf and hearing, God knows. The only thing that makes life bearable is personal freedom, when such freedom does not interfere with the welfare of others, to follow out the dictates of one's own individuality—to live as one pleases. If living as one pleases also includes loving as one pleases, so much the better. When the time comes that society has nothing more menacing to worry about than "the clamishness of the deaf," the millennium will be near at hand.

SARAH HARVEY PORTER.

Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

A PETITION TO THE KING.

[The Rev. W. Blomfield Sleight, M. A., President of the British Deaf and Dumb Association, together with Mr. G. F. Healey and Mr. James Muir, proceeded to the Home Office, London, December, 9, 1902, for the purpose of requesting the Home Secretary, Mr. C. T. Ritchie, to lay before His Majesty the King the following petition signed by 2,671 of His Majesty's deaf subjects. A letter from the Home Office, dated December 19 1902 informed Mr. Muir that the petition had been laid before His Majesty and by his commands had been referred to the Education Departments of the United Kingdom. The petition is illuminated on vellum.]

TO HIS MOST GRACIOUS MAJESTY

Edward the Seventh, King of Great Britain and Ireland, Emperor of India.

May it please your Majesty,—

Sire,—

WE, your Majesty's humble subjects, the undersigned Adult Deaf and Dumb, educated either privately or in the

Schools for the Deaf and Dumb in Great Britain and Ireland, and others who have lost hearing in adult life, and who have since acquired the finger and sign language, while acknowledging with the deepest gratitude the many privileges we have enjoyed under her late Majesty Queen Victoria's most illustrious and beneficent reign, and while expressing our loyalty and devotion to your Majesty's person and throne, beg, as a result of our daily experience in the battle of life, to lay before your Majesty some facts of vital importance to deaf children now in the Schools and in connection therewith humbly approach your Majesty with this, our Petition, which

HUMBLY SHEWETH:

1.—That the chief methods of teaching the Deaf are:—
Firstly: The manual method, which teaches by means of dactylology, the sign language, and writing. Secondly: The oral method, which teaches by means of speech and the understanding of speech, not by hearing the voice, but solely by reading the motions of the lips of the speaker. Thirdly: A COMBINATION of these METHODS.

2.—That this last COMBINED SYSTEM, which in our opinion, is the most rational and humane, prevails in the Schools of your Majesty's Dominion of Canada and of the United States of America, and the Deaf people of these countries have reached a plane of mental development generally admitted to be higher than that attained by the Deaf of other lands.

3.—That the oral method, carried to an extreme, is called the pure oral method. It prevails in Germany, where it originated. Its theory is that all the deaf should be taught to speak, and to understand the speech of others by watching their lip motions, and should be taught all branches of knowledge mainly by these means, and should be prevented even by force, if necessary, from using dactylology or natural gestures to express and interchange ideas. .

4. That the pure oral method requires that the pupil be forced to fit the method, not that the method be chosen to fit the pupil, and that so arbitrary and indiscriminate a requirement leads to evil and painful results.

5.—That the child born deaf, having no conception of sound, can indeed acquire a certain amount of artificial speech, but as this speech is based on years of exercising the vocal organs in order to assume certain positions and go through certain mechanical actions, and is not at all regulated by hearing, it is frequently harsh, discordant, and unintelligible, except to the child's instructors.

6.—That the number and range of words which the congenitally deaf child, taught by the pure oral method, can speak are necessarily very limited.

7.—That the ability, not only of such a child, but of any totally deaf person, to understand what is said by watching the movements of the lips is restricted within narrow limits by insuperable difficulties, since only 16 of the 41 elementary sounds uttered by the voice are indicated by any distinctly visible sign.

8.—That, in many cases, children who should not be subjected to the pure oral method at all are compelled to spend most of their school life in practising vocal positions and watching lip motions, and this time is taken from the few years that should be devoted to developing the intellect, and strengthening the character of the pupil.

9.—That, were the manual method adopted for such a child, he might leave School a happy, well-informed person, able to fulfil the duties of life intelligently, whereas, restricted to the pure oral method, he leaves School imperfectly educated and merely able to speak and understand a little spoken language with more or less uncertainty, and in too many cases with a very partial development of his mental powers.

10.—That these opinions are shared with scarcely an

exception by all the best educated deaf persons in the world; even in Germany, where the Adult Deaf have been instructed by the pure oral method, and have, like ourselves, experienced its absolute failure as a reliable means of inter-communication with the hearing and speaking world, a petition a few years ago was presented to the Emperor asking him to grant to deaf children, now in the Schools, relief from the rigid requirements of the pure oral method, and to order the adoption of a diversity of methods by virtue of which the varying needs of individual children can be met. We rejoice to observe at the present time that there are not wanting, apart from the just complaints of the Deaf themselves, evidence that this method of instruction will eventually give way to a more liberal and humane policy. Some of the ablest instructors of the Deaf in Germany do not hesitate to declare in published articles that the single method now in use is frequently inapplicable, inadequate, and even cruel.

WE, your Majesty's humble subjects, with all respectfulness and earnestness, implore your Majesty to direct your Majesty's Board of Education either to cause an inquiry to be made into this, our petition, or to direct that a GENERAL COMBINED SYSTEM or Oral and Manual Instruction shall be adopted in the Schools for the Deaf within your Majesty's Sovereignty, so that the priceless years occupied by the majority of the pupils in acquiring the afterwards discarded and all but useless practice of imperfect speech shall be devoted to their general education and the development of all their faculties; and we, therefore, out of sympathy for the Deaf and Dumb Children who will soon be following us upon the thorny path of life, and guided by our own experience and that of thousands of companions in the same misfortune, will ever pray.

THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.*

DURING the past year, we have been trying to work out a scheme of study for the deaf which is intended, as far as possible, to bring the order of development of our pupils and their attainments into unison with the public schools of the State, so that teachers may have both a stimulus and a standard of comparison. Isolated as we are, in a measure, by our methods of instruction, and the peculiar handicap of our pupils, teachers of the deaf are liable to two faults—provincialism and despair. We see little outside of our own work, and come to have, perhaps, an exaggerated estimate of what we do, because we compare our results only with the results of kindred institutions; whether the work is better or worse makes little difference, the tendency is to narrowness of outlook, and narrowness of view is always provincial. On the other hand, the faithful, hard-working teacher is often appalled with the almost hopeless nature of his task. The longer he teaches, the more dissatisfied he is with results. The infelicities of language, the treacherous memory, often the lack of application, the numberless things to be taught, and the limited term of school life, all combine to dishearten the teacher and drive him to despair. The writer knows, from personal experience, what failure is,

" If failure means
To look back sadly at work gladly done "

But in spite of the disappointments that often come to the faithful teacher, he should never give way to despair. There are many stony spots in the field of his endeavor, thorns infest the ground, birds carry away the seeds, but there are abundant stretches of fruitful soil where the harvest is thirty, sixty, nay, an hundredfold, and these pleasant

* From the Twenty-fifth Report of the California Institution, 1902.

spots should suffice to inspire a never-failing hope that labor shall not be in vain.

But at the same time the wide-awake teacher should safeguard himself against provincialism. He should broaden his experience by constant contact with the work and ways of educators in all departments of intellectual culture, and seek frequent comparison with the grammar and high school curriculums, and as far as possible use the same textbooks and examination questions. He should bring into the classroom the daily life and movement of the world. Current history studied in the making is of vastly more importance to the deaf to-day than are the factional fights of Rome in its decadence, or the struggles of York and Lancaster for the British crown. To know the duties of good citizenship, to prepare for a wise use of the ballot, to converse intelligently on the Philippine, Transvaal, and Chinese questions, on wireless telegraphy, and the different kinds of power used in the automobile, are of better worth than to know a whole bookful of the scandals of the French court in the time of Louis XIV or the licentious life of Charles the Second. The heroisms of history, the worthy examples of patriotism, of civic and domestic virtue, the causes of national decay, brief statements of great principles at stake in national or internecine strife, and how liberty, personal rights, and civilization have been advanced or retarded by victory or defeat in decisive battles, in the field or the forum—these are all subjects to be arranged in a logical series of lessons and drilled into the pupil's mind until they become permanent intellectual possessions. It is surprising into what a small compass the essential facts and teachings of history may be reduced when stripped of their petty details.

The subject of geography is generally made too voluminous for the average deaf-mute, and for hearing pupils as well, and seems to be arranged in the interest of the book-

maker rather than of the boy. The essential features of geography can be taught in a few lessons inculcated by persistent iteration and constant use of the globe, and the maps in history and current-event instruction. The shape and size of the earth, its rotation and revolution, and their effects in causing the seasons and alternation of day and night, the imaginary lines of latitude and longitude for mapping purposes, with the location of the grand divisions of land and water; also the ocean currents and their effect upon climate and civilization, can be taught quickly and effectively without a book. The political divisions of the land, the great mountain ranges, the dominant streams, the capitals and chief cities of countries, forms of government, and the ethnic characteristics and distribution of the people, and their chief industries and modes of life, all form a very good basis of geographic knowledge, and if the boy is taught how to use maps intelligently the above is about all he will need in future life.

In arithmetic, every pupil of average capacity when he leaves school should have a good knowledge of the four fundamental rules, of fractions in both forms, of tables and their use in trade, of applied percentage and mensuration, and these basic principles should be inculcated by such practical examples as the boy or girl is likely to meet in daily life or business. I cannot too strongly urge the importance of rapid and correct notation and numeration, and the mechanical processes of the four "ground" rules, and as soon as possible make these operations a pure mental process without the intermediary fingers. The "tables" should never be taught until the divisions of weights and measures have been practically illustrated. After a pupil has poured four gills of water into a pint measure, and two pints into a quart measure, and four quarts into a gallon measure, he is prepared and ought to memorize his table, but not before.

The majority of people whom our pupils meet in after life will judge their scholastic attainments and the work of the Institution by the penmanship used in their letters and conversations. While it is a mistaken judgment and a wrong standard, still a clear, even, and legible handwriting is a desirable accomplishment, and should be carefully taught and insisted upon. The tendency of pupils is to indulge in rapid and careless movement in writing, both on blackboard, slate, and paper, but this is one of the departments of instruction where *festina lente* aptly applies, and rapid writing must be preceded by painstaking and slow formation of letters for several of the initial years. When the character of one's penmanship is acquired, speed will come by subsequent practice.

Physiology is important, because upon the proper hygiene of the body depends usefulness in, and enjoyment of, life, but I would not use a text-book. The whole subject, so far as our pupils need to know it, can be effectively taught in carefully prepared lectures, and by the aid of a skeleton with every bone labeled, and a manikin by which can be shown the location of the internal organs. The functions of these organs, and how to live to preserve their efficient and healthful action, should be the subject of frequent instruction. I have sometimes thought that the less an unprofessional person knows about his "innards," the better off he is, but the hygienic and moral effect of cleanliness of person and linen, of exercise and regular habits and erect bearing, the evil effects of tobacco and stimulants, especially upon youth, of wet feet and unnecessary exposure, can be profitably dwelt upon.

The teaching of rudimentary physics may and should begin early, because the facts of the science can be made most interesting to a very young class, and the minds of the pupils may be thus directed to habits of inquiry and observation, and be prepared for the serious work which be-

longs to the more advanced grades. Phenomena may be illustrated by experiments long before the laws which underlie phenomena can be understood, such as the effect of heat upon air and metals; the uses of the thermometer, weather and clinical; the barometer and the pump, made of glass so that the action of the valves may be observed, with many experiments which an intelligent teacher will know how to devise and exhibit by simple and often home-made apparatus. There is no reason why the grammatical forms of language may not be taught in conveying a scientific fact as well as in the wearisome commonplaces so prevalent in the classroom. After a teacher has put a lump of sugar into a tumbler of water, and the pupils have watched its dissolution, the sentence "Water dissolves sugar" is just as useful for illustrating a sentence form as "Cows eat grass," and is much more interesting.

Instruction in ethics or morals should begin with the first day of a pupil's entrance into school. It is a rare class that does not give daily occasion and opportunity to teach kindness, forbearance, truthfulness, and their kindred virtues. Long before the language of a book of morals can be understood, the distinction between good and evil has found lodgment in the child's mind. Virtues and vices are so common as to afford abundant material for illustration, and the story drawn from life and experience is far more effective than any abstract ethical statement.

Grammar as a technical study belongs to advanced grades only, but English in correct form can be obtained with little knowledge of Brown or Kerl. A hearing child, who has never seen the inside of a schoolroom, but who by reason of a refined and cultured environment has never heard ungrammatical speech, will use language correctly and idiomatically. This use of correct speech, however, comes by constant iteration. Parents, teachers, playmates, day and night are uttering the winged words which set in motion

the molecular forces of the air and beat upon the tympanum of the ear with ceaseless impact. Our meagre but only substitution for this iteration is by addressing the eye, and therefore endless writing on the wall slate and in the presence of the pupils will accomplish two purposes: it will give the pupil something akin to the repetition of word and phrase so helpful to the hearing child, and it will create or stimulate the reading habit. I cannot urge too strongly this latter aid to education. Reading should begin early and be continued to the end of the course. As soon as possible the teacher should get rid of the intervention of fingers and accustom the pupil to take his mental impression direct from the written or printed page, as a hearing child does. The habit thus acquired will last through life, and upon it must depend the intellectual growth and development of the deaf after they leave school.

The foregoing paragraphs will indicate the lines pursued in working out the scheme of study. This is not the time nor place to set forth the full details of the schedule, but as I am often asked how we begin with pupils, it may interest such inquirers to know what is suggested as a course for the first three years:

FIRST YEAR.

1. Teach twenty names of familiar objects, which names shall contain all the letters of the alphabet.
2. Adjectives of color, dimension, and quality, with numerals up to ten.
3. Certain transitive and intransitive verbs in the present and past tense, and their incorporation in sentences, including the use of prepositions.
4. The personal pronouns.
5. A few familiar intensive adverbs.
6. The interrogatives, pronominal and adverbial, with answers.
7. Counting up to one hundred in the second half of the term, and notation and numeration to the same, with additions and subtractions within the number 10.
8. Penmanship, using the pencil for the first half, and pen and ink for

the second half of the term. Vertical system of writing both on black-board and in copy-books

9 Articulation and lip-reading.

Text-book to be followed, Sweet's First Lessons, but no evening study

SECOND YEAR.

1 A rapid review and continuation of first year's work, and in No 3, adding future tense of the verb and the actual present and imperfect tenses, enlarged use of No 6 in first year's work and in No 7, counting up to 1,000 and addition and subtraction up to the same number

2 The use of the conjunctions *and* and *but*.

3 Penmanship in ink continued, vertical system No 2 for the first half, and No. 3 for the second half of the term.

4 The reading habit to be begun Short incidents or stories of two, three, or four sentences to be written by the teacher and taken mentally by the pupils (no spelling on the fingers allowed) and then reproduced on the blackboard.

5 Articulation and lip-reading continued

6 Letter-writing once a month.

Text-book to be followed, Sweet's Second Lessons Some simple book for supplemental reading No evening study.

THIRD YEAR

1 Rapid review of second year's work

2 Further development of the verb, sentence-building, and larger use of interrogatives

3. Exercises in descriptive picture-writing.

4. The reading of teacher's stories, written in the presence of pupils, and reproduced after five minutes' study without the use of finger spelling

5 Morning journal

6 Number work continued, including multiplication and division. Simple mental arithmetic begun.

7 Letter-writing every two weeks

8 Articulation and lip-reading continued The articulation teachers are to be given, with every class, a written list of exercises used in the manual teachers' work, thus supplementing each other and making the two departments co-operate, and the articulation teachers should use in their work the reading books used by the class in the manual department

Text-book to be followed, Sweet's Third Lessons A supplemental reading book

As stated in a previous paragraph, this schedule of the first three years in school is here presented, not for the use

or benefit of my professional brethren, who generally follow the same or a similar course, but for the information of those who are not aware of the primitive processes a teacher of the deaf has to use in developing a knowledge of the English language. Whether a boy enters at six or sixteen years of age, he has to begin and go through the same elementary training in acquiring this instrument of thought expression, and there is nothing more pitiful than to see a lad almost old enough to graduate wrestling with the primitive symbols of "cat," "dog," side by side with a child just one remove from the nursery. Parents who thus neglect the opportunity for early education which the State provides assume a grave responsibility, and have only themselves to blame for the meagre results which the school is sometimes obliged to send forth.

After the preliminary course suggested above, the order and scope of study follow as nearly as possible the curriculum of the common schools, and to this end and as a guide the course of study used in the Berkeley schools has been adopted. It has been necessary to make some rearrangements and adjustments, but in the completed course it is hoped to give the average pupil a fair knowledge of all the essential subjects studied in the grammar-school programme for eight years. The high-school course which leads to college or the university is special, and limited to certain exceptionally bright pupils who give promise of successfully and profitably pursuing the higher education.

WARRING WILKINSON,

Principal of the California Institution, Berkeley, California.

RECENT GERMAN PUBLICATIONS.

MR. M. KOLLER, Director of the Central Institution for the Deaf at Munich, has become widely known through his much debated experiment of dividing the pupils under his charge into two classes—those who are genuine deaf-mutes and those who are not. At a Convention of German Aurists and Instructors of the Deaf, held in September, 1899, he showed the results he had attained through this division with pupils possessed of a slight degree of hearing. A decided sensation was created by this exhibition of his work.

Since that time the question has been everywhere discussed in Germany whether or not the semi-deaf, the semi-mute, and those children who show a marked aptitude for speech should be taught by a special method and kept rigidly apart from their less fortunate companions. In several schools experiments have been begun in this direction.

In the little volume before us* Mr. Koller treads the narrow but useful path of every-day schoolroom methods and devices. He provides a language book for teachers and learners of the lower grades and shows how, in his opinion, the earliest instruction should be given.

Among teachers of the deaf in Germany considerable dissatisfaction with present-day methods is openly and quite generally expressed. The results, it is claimed by many, are not commensurate with the labor expended in their attainment. There is too much pedagogical splitting of hairs. Not enough care is exercised in the choice and arrangement of language material according to form and content. All is confused. There is no unanimity of plan.

*"Wie sagst du?" Sprachbuch für Taubstummen. ["How Do You Speak?" A Language Book for Deaf-Mutes]

One authority would employ only the natural method in the schoolroom. He would follow nature to the fullest extent, serene in the faith that unlimited conversation will in time correct all mistakes and lead his pupils into the promised land of language. Another expects great results from close adherence to the rules of grammar, and advocates the early use of printed lesson books. Still another would banish during the first three or four years of school-life every text-book from his classroom, and depend entirely upon the material for speech and language provided by the individual teacher. One instructor believes that the teacher should determine strictly the course of the early years of instruction; while his colleague, relying upon no less an authority than Herbart, maintains that the teacher should be guided by his pupils and should aim especially to arouse the "interest" of the children.

Given so many different opinions, disputes over trifles can hardly fail to arise. What shall we teach first? becomes an absorbing question. Shall we speak of the slate or of the pencil? Which is the more important sentence—"The slate has a frame" or "Max has a slate"? In this strife Mr. Koller takes the part of a mediator. Beginning with the conviction that the little deaf child has urgent need, desire, and right to express himself concerning the things that lie nearest to him, he treats of the school and all that intimately pertains to it. He considers the pupil in his relation to the institution and its surroundings, to his teacher and his classmates. He does all this in a manner which can hardly fail to bring the differing pedagogical sects more closely together. Every page of the little book reveals the practical schoolmaster. It will be of service as a guide to less experienced teachers in their elementary language work.

Mr. F. Werner, a teacher in the Stadel Institution, has already won deserved recognition by his translation into

German of Bonet's "*Reduccion de las Letras, y Arte para enseñar a Ablar los Mudos.*" All his publications are distinguished by psychological insight, and bear the imprint of a strong, original personality. He is no respecter of persons. Regardless of the widely blazoned views of the leaders of the profession in Germany, he criticizes the traditional methods freely.

In the work before us* he deals chiefly with the difficulties that the deaf-mute has to overcome in learning articulation. His keen intuitions, supplemented by close practical observation, lead him to the conclusion that the theoretical foundation of the oral method is vulnerable at every point. The claims and promises made in its name, he says, are not and cannot be fulfilled.

Mr. Werner advocates a division of deaf pupils according to their mental capacity. At present, however, he confesses frankly, he is not quite clear as to the best method to follow in the instruction of the weaker class.

In conclusion Mr. Werner reviews all the methods which, in his opinion, might be profitably employed. Just here, it seems to me, he misunderstands the position of the uneducated deaf-mute in respect to written language, and underestimates the necessary dependence of written language upon either articulation or the manual alphabet. On page 64 he says: "The deaf-mute who has once made written language his mode of thought will continue to hold fast to that mode of thought exclusively." I cannot subscribe to the above opinion for the reason that thought in written language is utterly impossible. There is no case on record of a deaf-mute who without either speech or the

*Die deutsche Methode und die Teilung der Taubstummen nach der geistigen Befähigung. Viertes Programm der Provinzial-Taubstummen-Anstalt zu Stade. [The German Method and the Classification of Deaf-Mutes according to Mental Capacity. Fourth Report of the Provincial Institution for Deaf Mutes at Stade.] Stade: F. Habersaath 1901. 8vo, pp. 86.

manual alphabet has been able to understand or make himself understood through written language. It is useless, therefore, to talk about "a written-language method." On this subject, however, erroneous views have spread far and wide. It is one of the most important questions of our time, and one in the final solution of which Mr. Werner will surely have a part. We await with interest, therefore, the appearance of his larger book, in which he promises to enter more fully into details concerning the relation of deaf pupils to the different methods of language teaching.

Mr. H. Stelling, an instructor in the Emden Institution, is also one of those who dare to think for themselves concerning educational problems in our profession. He does not allow himself to be carried away by the blare of trumpets, but seeks earnestly for ways and means to remedy the discrepancy which exists between the glowing promises of the oral method and its unsatisfactory results. For years he has given especial attention to the instruction of backward and feeble-minded deaf-mutes. He has constantly sought to obtain for them more individual attention than they usually receive in our schools.

In the pamphlet before us* Mr. Stelling gives a full report of his observations in Danish and Norwegian schools. As is well known, the schools of Denmark and of Norway make a strict line of demarcation between normal and abnormal deaf-mutes, and the two classes are completely separated. The admirable results obtained by this system in those countries lead Mr. Stelling to urge a similar divi-

*Die Erziehung der schwachbegabten und schwachsinnigen Taubstummen und die Teilung nach Fähigkeiten überhaupt. [The Education of Backward and Feeble-Minded Deaf-Mutes with especial reference to their Classification according to Capacity]. Leipzig: C. Merseberger. 1902. 8vo, pp. 78.

sion in the Province of Hannover. I very much doubt, however, whether the authorities, in spite of his urgent recommendation, will be converted to his plan, for he advocates the retention of the oral method for the backward as well as the more intelligent deaf. If methods, means, and end are to remain the same in the two kinds of schools, it is hard to see what great benefit would be derived from a changing about of the pupils.

It has been ascertained that for about twenty per cent. of the pupils in German schools the oral method is an entire failure. We have to do here with children who, in addition to deafness or hardness of hearing, suffer also from some disturbances of the speech centers of the brain. For this latter class all attempts to teach speech, or to teach by speech, must inevitably fail. But when we call these children feeble-minded we make an utterly false diagnosis, since their inability to learn to speak springs rather from a functional disorder of the motor centers of speech than from any lack of intelligence.

The Institution in Copenhagen deals almost exclusively with pupils of this class, teaching them by the manual-alphabet method. But Mr. Stelling refuses to attribute the good results observed at Copenhagen to the use of the manual alphabet. Instead he believes the excellence attained is due to the happy choice of the language material, its wise arrangement, its conscientious application, etc. This explanation does not suffice, for the points Mr. Stelling praises are now so generally approved as a matter of course that one can scarcely imagine a school of any kind in these days that does not make them the very A B C of its pedagogical work.

The fact is, Mr. Stelling does not seem to understand the essential difference between the oral and the manual-alphabet methods. He does not clearly grasp the fact that in the two cases the psychological processes are connected

with different centers of the brain. Persons who suffer from motor aphasia may never succeed in speaking even in uttering an articulate sound. They can, however, easily be taught to make the hand their organ of thought expression.

The absolutely negative results of the oral method for about twenty per cent. of the deaf cannot justly be attributed to poor methods of teaching. The cause, in many cases at least, lies in the nature of the defects from which the pupils suffer.

If Mr. Stelling succeeds in his plan of having his classes of backward pupils separated from the others and taught wholly by the oral method, we have full confidence that he will report with entire candor, and as soon as possible, the result of the experiment.

Thus far we have been dealing with men who are *making* history. We come now to a man who *writes* history and who possesses the talent out of ninety-nine books to manufacture the hundredth.

Mr. J. Karth describes his book* as "a retrospect," and seeks to answer the question, "What was the state of the education of the deaf in Europe at the beginning and at the end of the nineteenth century?" He gives a rapid answer in figures, page 421, which will not be without interest to readers of the *Annals*.

*Das Taubstummeneinbildungswesen im XIX Jahrhundert, in den wichtigsten Staaten Europas. Ein Ueberblick über seine Entwicklung. [A Survey of the Development of the Education of the Deaf during the Nineteenth Century in the Most Important Countries of Europe.] Breslau: W. G. Korn. 1902. 8vo, pp. 428.

COUNTRIES.	Institutions in the year 1800.	In the year 1900.	
		Institutions.	Pupils.
Germany.....	3	91	6,458
Belgium.....	—	12	926
Denmark.....	1	3	400
Finland.....	—	8	483
France.....	2	63	3,834
Great Britain	1	{17*} {48†}	3,073
Holland....	1	4	504
Italy.....	2	47	2,299
Croatia	—	1	46
Norway....	—	5	309
Austria.....	2	25	1,784
Baltic Provinces	—	6	269
Russia.....	—	20	885
Sweden.....	—	12	803
Switzerland	—	16	732
Spain	—	11	475
Hungary.....	—	8	492
Total	12	397	23,772

To reach the results given Mr. Karth thought it necessary to write a book of 428 pages, in spite of the fact that teachers of the deaf in Germany have already at hand a treatise upon the same subject which extends to the year 1882. Compared with Mr. Walther's comprehensive historical work this book seems a very weak compilation.

It was evidently impossible for Mr. Karth to let Mr. Walther's well arranged material alone. Therefore he does not begin, as his title indicates, with the year 1800, but goes way back to the beginning of the instruction of the deaf by Pedro de Ponce in 1570, and gives over again those biographies, of which we are all weary, of Heinicke, De l'Épée, and other worthy men who it is true belong to the history of our profession, but not to the nineteenth century. He does not keep his prefatory promise to be brief, but dwells at tiresome length upon the history of the origin

* Institutions.

† Day-Schools.

and growth of individual institutions—a subject which cannot possibly be of general interest. He ought to have begun his history where Mr. Walther stops, at the year 1882. But, unhappily, where Mr. Walther leaves the subject, there Mr. Karth's wisdom comes to an end. At that point, he says, begin "currents, concerning which a later generation must be the judge." The remarkable sagacity of this statement, however, does not prevent him from making a few comments on the "currents" referred to. He informs his readers that he himself belongs to the orthodox fold of the oralists, and that he keeps far aloof from all heresy.

So long as Mr. Karth limits himself to collecting and arranging statistics and other material, we can praise his industry and skill. But not content with this, and following the example of greater men, he thinks it his duty to discern and point out the signs of the times. In attempting such a task he shows his entire unfitness for it. He contemptuously characterizes the efforts at reform of the past twenty years as "currents," but he fails to see from what sources these currents spring or whither they flow. He does not recognize the mental starvation into which numberless deaf-mutes are thrown by the inadequacy of the oral method to meet their needs. He has no conception, apparently, of the many psychological problems in connection with our profession which still await solution.

But when Mr. Karth entirely ignores the position of the adult deaf with respect to the strife of methods and (page 164) asserts of unnamed deaf-mutes that they "will have nothing to do with the finger language," it is no longer a question of ignorance but of deliberate misrepresentation—the severest reproach that an historian can bring upon himself.

Mr. Karth allows himself to be blinded by numbers and outside show, and feels happy in the consciousness that,

in Germany at least, he has the majority on his side. But self-satisfaction, self-glorification, and the scornful waving aside of all efforts at reform are unmistakable omens of stagnation if not of retrogression. Indications of this kind are only too clearly embodied in Mr. Karth's work.

I. HEIDSIEK.

Instructor in the Breslau Institution, Breslau, Silesia, Prussia

THE SECOND ROUND-TABLE OF WISCONSIN TEACHERS.

PURSUANT to the call of Mr. W. D. PARKER, Inspector of Wisconsin Schools for the Deaf, the teachers of the deaf of Wisconsin held their second annual Round-Table at the Baptist Tabernacle in Milwaukee, on Monday afternoon, December 29, 1902. The attendance was not as large as that of the first Round-Table, owing perhaps to the inopportune time of the meeting.

After a felicitous address of welcome, Mr. Parker introduced Miss HYPATIA BOYD, of the State School at Delavan, with her deaf-blind pupil, Eva Halliday. Miss Boyd gave an interesting account of her work with Eva. She said, in part: "Eva was fifteen years old when I was given charge of her education last February. At that time she had no language, but in spite of that it was evident that she was a bright, wide-awake girl, with an affectionate soul that most pathetically pleaded to be rescued from a world of darkness and ignorance. So strongly did her sad condition appeal to me that my heart went out to her, even before I saw her, and when she came to me, I straightway used the manual alphabet as a key to open the door of the prison. After she had once comprehended the meaning of the finger alphabet and of words, she showed a keen and tireless interest in the new world that was now opened up to her. She wanted me to spell in her hand the names of

Day-School, extended a cordial invitation to those present to attend the opening of the new building of her School some time in February.

Miss CARRIE H. ARCHIBALD, of Oshkosh, offered some suggestions on "The Best Means of Enabling the Deaf to Acquire Language." Miss Archibald closely follows the "Language Outline" of Miss Wettstein, supplementing it with considerable reproduction work. She also thinks selections from the best poems, and sometimes complete poems memorized, helpful to the deaf in acquiring language. For reproduction work she uses history, biography, mythology, and nature work.

In presenting the topic "Physical Training," Mr. THOMAS HAGERTY, of Delavan, advocated abundant outdoor exercise to supplement gymnasium work. With the deaf, special attention should be given to foot movements, and awkward standing and walking should be corrected. The gymnasium should be sufficiently large to accommodate at a time a class of one-half the number of boys attending school, and care should be taken to grade the pupils according to their physical conditions, sizes, and ages, before assigning them to classes in the gymnasium.

Miss WETTSTEIN was elected Chairman of the Section for the coming year.

PAUL LANGE,
Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

FIVE Slate System of language teaching helpful, and advocates the use of blank books for recording new words and sentences for future use.

"Points on Every-day English" was the subject of an excellent paper by Miss ALMIRA I. HOBART, of the State School at Delavan. Miss Hobart would have a systematic development of the child's language, giving him an opportunity to familiarize himself with new forms before taking up others, using them in different facts and incidents so as to fix them firmly in his mind. The corrected sentences should be written on wall slates or charts so that the child may refer to them. From morning until night the child should be placed in an atmosphere of language and taught readily to express his common thoughts, joys, pains, sorrows, and requests. He should be encouraged and assisted in writing out the daily events which are part of his life, given books and papers adapted to his mental capacity, and told interesting stories in order to instill a taste for reading.

Miss ANNA E. SCHAFER, the new Inspector of Schools for the Deaf, was then introduced. Miss Schaffer expressed herself as greatly pleased with her new field of labor.

Miss GUSSIE GREENER, of Rhinelander, presented an interesting paper on "Action Work." Miss Greener considers action work beneficial in furnishing the child food for thought and cultivating a keener power for lip-reading. She also finds it a valuable auxiliary in illustrating sentences, stories, and problems in arithmetic.

"Journal Work for Primary Children," was discussed by Miss STELLA M. FLATLEY, of Green Bay.

Mr C. P. CARY, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and former Superintendent of the State School at Delavan, spoke briefly of his connection with the Institution, and offered some helpful suggestions.

Miss FRANCES WETTSTEIN, Principal of the Milwaukee

or two months. Eleven or more States may thus be represented at the same time. As the classes change every month or two, all States will have an opportunity of being represented. Some States have expressed a desire to represent more schools and others to send more classes or to occupy more time. As there are 40 schools for the blind and 123 for the deaf, there should be no difficulty in filling the time and space. Arrangements can be made for institutions to send classes not listed in the diagram, provided applications are made in time.

Dormitory.—A convenient dormitory with playgrounds will be provided by the Exposition Company. Experienced matrons, supervisors, and attendants will be selected or approved by the committees. Every convenience and precaution possible will be employed for the safety and the comfort of the children. The teacher representing an institution will be responsible for his or her pupils from the time they leave the dormitory for school until they return, when they will be placed under the care of experienced supervisors. If desirable a school may send a supervisor to take charge of its pupils outside of school hours and accompany them about the grounds.

Expenses.—Furniture for the dormitory will be made in the cabinet shops of institutions and loaned to the schools, unless otherwise provided. The products of the industrial classes will be sold as souvenirs to pay for the raw material used. The total expenses incurred by the committees for maintaining the schools and the dormitory for each week will be divided by the number of pupils present, and each State or institution will be charged in proportion to its representation. By these plans expenses will be reduced so that it will cost but little more to keep a class here than at the home school. Many institutions are willing to pay the entire cost from the institution's funds. Some State commissions in charge of the State appropriations for the Exposition will pay part and others will pay all of these expenses.

Class Work.—The model schools do not exclude the

display of finished class work. The walls of each room or space will be lined with cases and wall cabinets for the display of articles similar to those being produced in that space. For example, the walls of the shoeshop will be lined with cases for the display of shoes made in different institutions. This affords an opportunity for suitable classification and avoids unnecessary and uninteresting duplications, which have always been a great waste of space to the company, of time to the visitors, and of money to the exhibitors.

The committees can have the cases and wall cabinets made more cheaply and with more uniformity than the individual schools. However, if an institution wishes to make its own cases, plans may be sent to the committees. The expense of installation and care of these exhibits will be met by the exhibitors.

The name of each State and school sending a class will be placed over the space occupied by that class. A list of States and institutions which are to fill the spaces will be displayed and also portraits of classes which have once occupied them. Arrangements are being made to have the printing class publish a book containing a portrait of each class and an engraving of the school from which it came. This will be accompanied by interesting material concerning the deaf and the blind.

The model schools will be among the most instructive features of the Exposition. They will attract wide attention at home and abroad. No State, institution, or school can afford to be without representation in this united effort. What a State does for its deaf and its blind is an index to the character of its population, to its wealth and resources, and to the ability of its officials. Large sums of money are yearly spent for the education of the deaf and the blind, and the public have a right to know what is being done for them. The State is also entitled to the privilege of displaying its educational advantages. Above all the deaf and the blind will be benefited by a more just and accurate public sentiment.

Applications for participation should be made to the secretaries of the committees.

Key to the Plan of Exhibit.

School for the Deaf.

- | | |
|------|--|
| Room | 1. School for the deaf-blind. |
| " | 2. Primary oral class. |
| " | 3. Advanced oral class. |
| " | 4. Object and action work. |
| " | 5. Language and other primary methods. |
| " | 6. College display. |
| " | 7. Gallery of eminent instructors. (Models of schools, etc.) |
| " | 8. Statistics, publications, etc. (Volta Bureau, etc.) |
| " | 9. Shoeshop. |
| " | 10. Art class. |
| " | 11. Sewing or cooking class. |
| " | 12. Tailor-shop. |
| " | 13. Sloyd class. |
| " | 14. Carpenter-shop. |
| " | 15. Printing office. |
| " | A. Platform for recitations and songs in the sign language. |

School for the Blind.

- | | |
|------|---|
| Room | 16. School for the deaf-blind. |
| " | 17. Writing class (using the Braille or New York point system). |
| " | 18. Reading class. |
| " | 19. Object work. |
| " | 20. Language, geography, and other primary methods. |
| " | 21. Display of high-school work. |
| " | 22. Gallery of eminent instructors. (Models of schools, etc.) |
| " | 23. Statistics, publications, etc. |
| " | 24. Basket-making. |
| " | 25. Weaving class. |
| " | 26. Sewing or cooking class. |

Room 27. Music room.

“ 28. Library, including printing display.

“ 29. Bookbinding or upholstering.

“ 30. Broom factory.

“ B. Band platform.

Other industrial classes can be substituted for these, provided applications are made in time.

*Committee representing the Convention of American
Instructors of the Deaf.*

Chairman, E. M. GALLAUDET, President of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Vice-Chairman, N. B. MCKEE, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf, Fulton, Mo.

Secretary, A. E. POPE, Department of Education, Universal Exposition, St. Louis, Mo.

Treasurer, HENRY C. HAMMOND, Superintendent of the Kansas School for the Deaf, Olathe, Kan.

Miss MARY McCOWEN, Supervising Principal of the Chicago Public Day-Schools, Chicago, Ill.

Rev. JAMES H. CLOUD, Principal of Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.

*Committee representing the American Association of
Instructors of the Blind.*

Chairman and Treasurer, S. M. GREEN, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary, J. N. FREEMAN, Superintendent of the Institution for the Education of the Blind, Jacksonville, Ill.

B. B. HUNTOON, Superintendent of the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind, Louisville, Ky.

M. ANAGNOS, Director of the Massachusetts School and Perkins Institute for the Blind, South Boston, Mass.

W. B. WAIT, Superintendent of the New York Institution for the Blind, New York City.

E. E. ALLEN, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.

A. J. HURTON, Superintendent of the Wisconsin School for the Blind, Janesville, Wis.

THE DEAF CHILD.

Like a loose island on the wide expanse,
Unconscious floating on the fickle sea,
Herself her all, she lives in privacy;
Her waking life as lonely as a trance,
Doomed to behold the universal dance,
The vague, mute language of the countenance,
And never hear the music which expounds,
The solemn step, coy slide, and merry bounds.
In vain for her I smooth my antic rhyme;
She cannot hear it, all her little being
Concentred in her solitary seeing—
What can she know of beauteous or sublime?
And yet, methinks, she looks so calm and good,
God must be with her in her solitude.

HARTLEY COLERIDGE.

THE DEAF BEETHOVEN.

His magic fingers wander o'er the keys—
Silent, alas! to him for evermore;
Though, like wave music on a sun-kissed shore,
The tones float up in wondrous melodies.

Oh not for him the sense that bears the sound
Of such sweet chords unto the inmost soul!
Oh not for him the solemn thunder roll
Pealing, in sterner moments, far around!

Nor yet for him to hear the plaudits loud;
Though, turning in the pauses of his theme,
As one awaking from a soundless dream,
He sees the passionate gestures of the crowd;

As an Æolian lyre, when winds go by,
Wakes to the unseen airs and straightway sings,
Though all unconscious of its own sweet strains,
By him unheard, wakes his own melody.

Or as a forest pine in night's dim shade,
Tosses wild arms into the troubled air,
Wailing in strains that seem almost despair,
Yet knows not of the moans itself has made.

Or as a low-voiced stream beneath the moon,
Singing its midnight monotone unseen;
Or as a glistening fall, 'mid leafage green,
Flooding with melody the woods of June
Or as the solemn turret bell, whose tones
Strike the dull air as with the beat of doom,
While the close-gathered mourners round the tomb
Strive not to vex the dead with futile moans.
Yet who shall say that in his soul sublime,
Lifted so far above the common earth,
Some inner sense of joy may not have birth,
Some music all unknown to things of time?
Some melodies which, floating through that soul,
Up to the spirit world unconscious soar,
And, garnered in those realms for evermore,
May meet him when this earth shall cease to roll?
Denied to him the priceless gift to hear
His own creations Ah! what glad surprise
When on immortal strings those chords shall rise
Triumphant, as eternity draws near;
Greatest of all and though his star may shine,
And earth be filled with gladness through its beams
Yet in God's ways a sadness seems
The Nemesis of gifts almost divine.

INNER MUSIC.

Mine ears are wrapped in outward quiet, yet
My soul doth hear weird music from the glades
Of a strange, mystic land I wot not of
Full well I know diviner harmony
Ne'er greets the sense of those to whom the sounds
Of earth are audible And I am blessed
In that no jarring noise disturbs my thought,
Which flows serenely on in peacefulness,
And gains a clear distinctness it would lack
Amid earth's din A tender Father knows
What I have need of, and I murmur not
But rest content and glad to lose myself
In that far-reaching love which covers all
My imperfection.

AGATHA TIEGEL HANSON, B. A.,
Seattle, Washington.

SCHOOL ITEMS

American School.—Dr. Job Williams has been granted a leave of absence for several months on account of his health and has gone to Arizona. We hope he will return to his work fully restored. Dr. Gilbert O. Fay is Acting Principal in his absence.

Illinois Institution.—During a heavy windstorm, which raged with great violence and did great damage, a ventilating chimney on the little girls' cottage fell in with a terrific crash at one o'clock on Wednesday morning, January 7. This chimney extended twelve feet above the roof and though very strongly built, the bricks being laid in cement, was top-heavy. It crashed through the roof and fortunately landed in large sections directly over a partition between bedrooms. In falling, roof timbers were thrust through the ceiling of two bedrooms, and long pieces, two by four, and pieces of plastering fell upon the beds of sleeping children. Strange to say not a child received the slightest injury, though there were some hairbreadth escapes.

Iowa School.—The *Deaf Hawkeye* for January 23 was edited entirely by deaf ladies, and all the contributors were deaf ladies. They made a paper of unusual interest and value.

Minnesota School.—We regret the retirement from the office of director of the Hon. R. A. Mott, who was one of the three original commissioners appointed in 1863 to establish the School, and has served continually as director from that time, except for a brief period soon after his first appointment. Judge Mott has frequently attended the Conventions of American Instructors of the Deaf; probably no other man holding a similar position is so well known to the profession. His familiarity with the work, his intelligent interest, his enthusiasm and devotion make his retirement a matter of regret not only to the

friends of the Minnesota School but to those of the education of the deaf in general.

Mississippi Institution.—Miss Jane Moffat has been added to the corps of teachers.

Nebraska Institute.—Mr. Alvin E. Pope and Mr. Harry F. Best have resigned their positions as teachers; Mr. Pope to take charge of the exhibits of the Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind and other work in connection with the St. Louis Universal Exposition in 1904, and Mr. Best to teach in the Washington State School. Mr. Charles Eldridge, formerly boys' supervisor in the Kansas School, is appointed to supply one of these vacancies.

North Dakota School.—Mr. Charles D. Seaton has resigned his position as instructor in the advanced department, foreman of the carpenter shop, and editor of the *Banner*; we hope he will return to the profession after a season of rest.

Oregon School.—Miss Tillie Garman has resigned the position of teacher on account of failing health. Mr. Wilhelm F. Schneider, B. A., a graduate of the Ohio Institution and of Gallaudet College, has been appointed to fill the vacancy.

The name of the school paper has been changed from the *Oregon Gazetteer* to the *Web-Foot*.

Rockford Day-School.—A day-school has been begun at Rockford, Illinois. The teacher is Miss Sarah M. Kinnaird.

West Virginia School.—Miss Jayne L. Handley and Miss Edith Carskadon have been added to the corps of instruction. Miss Carskadon teaches physical culture.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Candace A. Yendes has recently published a little book of quotations from various authors called "A Garland of Violets."

MISCELLANEOUS.

George Hutton.—The frontispiece of the present number of the *Annals* is a reduced copy of a carbon portrait of George Hutton, presented to the Volta Bureau by his son, Mr. George Clark Hutton, of Paisley, Scotland. George Hutton was born January 4, 1801, and died February 24, 1870. He was a teacher of the deaf for fifty years; forty years in Scotland, first at Caputh and afterwards at Perth, and ten years at Halifax, Nova Scotia, in connection with his son James Scott Hutton, the Principal of the Institution. He was the author of several articles published in the *Annals*, and of a manuscript volume entitled "Specimens of a Dictionary of Natural Signs for the Deaf and Dumb," which, after having been lost for many years, was found in 1898 and is now deposited in the library of the Volta Bureau.

The Certification and Registration of Teachers.—The principal subject of discussion at a meeting of the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf, held at Stoke-on-Trent last December, was the certification and registration of teachers. There are now three bodies that issue certificates of qualification to teachers of the deaf in Great Britain, viz., the Training College at Fitzroy Square, the Training College at Ealing, and the College of Teachers (Incorporated) London; but none of the certificates granted by these bodies are recognized by the government authorities as qualifying the holders to registration as teachers. On the other hand the government requirement for a certificate as primary teacher contains no provision for training or experience in teaching the deaf. The practical effect seems to be that persons who are not qualified by special training to become teachers of the deaf are eligible to appointment, while those who are thus qualified are not eligible. The Association passed resolutions expressing the opinion that a Joint Board of Examiners should be established to issue certificates instead of the three separate bodies, and that representatives of the three bodies should be invited to meet and agree upon a plan. It is hoped that if this unifica-

tion of the work is accomplished the Joint Board will carry sufficient weight to secure the recognition of its certificates from the government as furnishing the proper evidence of fitness for the work of teaching the deaf.

Deaf Men in the Civil War—*The Goodson Gazette* says that two deaf teachers of the Virginia Institution were in the Confederate service during the Civil War—Mr. William M. Berkeley and Mr. H. M. Chamberlayne. Mr. Berkeley was disabled by a wound received in the battle of Cedar Mountain. Mr. Chamberlayne was in all the battles around Richmond, but escaped uninjured. One day, among some prisoners on their way to Richmond, he recognized a deaf man named Jennings, whom he had known as a pupil in the New York Institution. Jennings was in the Federal service and was captured with his regiment by "Stonewall" Jackson in the battle of New Market.

Periodicals—Mr. G. Ferreri has returned to Siena and resumed the publication of *L'Educazione dei Sordomuti*, which was suspended when he came to America a year ago. The first number of the new volume, which is called "Volume I, third series" and is Volume XXVI counting from the beginning, is dated January, 1903. The first series of thirteen volumes extended from 1872 to 1884, and the second series of thirteen volumes from 1890 to 1901. *L'Educazione* will henceforth appear monthly except in August and September, and each volume will contain from 300 to 320 pages. While it is to be an organ especially for the study and promotion of the oral method, Mr. Ferreri will keep his readers informed of what is done for the care, protection, and education of the deaf, at home and abroad, without regard to methods and opinions. It is no longer published at the Siena Institution, but is entirely an independent undertaking. The subscription price for foreign countries is \$2.00 and the address is simply *All' Educazione dei Sordomuti, Siena, Italy*.

The first number of *The Teacher of the Deaf*, the organ

of the National Association of Teachers of the Deaf of Great Britain, is dated January, 1903. The editors are Miss Susanna E. Hull, of Woodvale, Bexley, Kent, and Mr. Arthur J. Story, Head Master of the Blind and Deaf School, the Mount, Stoke-on-Trent. Its objects, as set forth in an editorial article and in a contribution from Dr. Richard Elliott, are to make the work of instructing the deaf properly appreciated by the general public, to afford a medium for the kindly interchange of opinions, experiences, and ambitions, to consider and endeavor to remove the difficulties of the work, to record the steps taken in promoting the social and intellectual status of the deaf, and to raise the standard of qualifications for teachers. While its pages are closed to profitless contention and personal invective, they are open to every teacher of the deaf, of whatever system, method, or position, and the hope is expressed that by a free interchange of thought and opinion English teachers may in time arrive at that desirable end, "the conciliation of methods." Dr. Elliott in his article pays American teachers the compliment of saying that "In the *American Annals of the Deaf* we have an example of what such a paper may accomplish and an excellent model for our imitation." The *Teacher* will be published bi-monthly; the first number contains 32 pages. The publisher is *Francis Carter, Iron Gate, Derby, England*, and the subscription price is 55 cents a year. This is so low that we think American subscribers ought at least to add 12 cents for postage.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

Wanted, by an experienced artist, a position as teacher of drawing in some school for the deaf. Collegiate and other references furnished. Address B., 772 East 188th Street, New York City.

Wanted, a position as teacher in some school for the deaf. The applicant will also be willing to teach gymnastics to girls. Collegiate and other references furnished. Address A., Care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

Wanted, No. 3 of vol. vi of the *Annals* to complete a set. Many back numbers of the *Annals* for sale at less than the regular price. Address John F. Bledsoe, 649 W. Saratoga St., Baltimore, Md.



Harvey W. Lilligan

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HARVEY WILLIAM MILLIGAN.

On the sixteenth day of July, 1902, He who "giveth His beloved sleep" called to his final rest one who, by his long service, strong personal character, and moral worth, occupied for many years a foremost position in the profession. The shadow which fell upon his home on that July day rested upon hundreds of other hearthstones.

Although Dr. Milligan's work and reputation are widely known and his services require no memorial to perpetuate them, it seems appropriate that a brief sketch of his history should form part of the *Annals*, the organ of the profession of which he was so long an honored member. Of him it may be truly said that he was formed by nature and culture to be an ornament to society, that he was qualified in no common degree for usefulness among his fellow men, and that he was exemplary and lovely in all the relations of life.

Harvey William Milligan was born April 26, 1830, at Alford, Massachusetts. His early training was rugged, giving to mind and body alike the vigor which characterized his life, while his social surroundings were such as to stimulate high moral purpose and activity. He had no inherited wealth to lure him to ease. He was too proud to be dependent upon any one but himself and too ambi-

tious to be satisfied with an inferior rank in any calling in which he might engage. The rough discipline of a new England life early gave him that fine physical development which made him always a noticeable man in a public assembly.

He formed early in life the habit of omnivorous reading which ended only at his death, the library which he left being probably the finest of its kind in Central Illinois. His reading and studies rapidly enlarged and elevated a brilliant mind, while his human sympathies and Christian sentiments softened those asperities often characteristic of the self-made man. He was never ashamed of his youthful struggles with poverty, believing thoroughly in the dignity not of labor but of the laborer.

In 1849 he entered Williams College, making his way by teaching in country schools. During part of his college course he was under the personal instruction of Mark Hopkins, graduating in 1853. Three years later he obtained his degree of M. A.

Soon after graduating he accepted a situation in Western Tennessee as private tutor in the family of Mr. William Ewing, to whose daughter Josephine, his eldest pupil, he was happily married March 16, 1856. The young people went at once to Philadelphia, where Mr. Milligan was offered a position in the Pennsylvania Institution by Mr. Hutton, to whom he had been advised to apply by Professor Lewellyn Pratt. This position he held for ten years. It was in the latter part of this period that he was able by strenuous effort to complete a long-delayed course in medicine, and graduate from the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania. Being prevented by poor health and a slender purse from entering at once into practice, he accepted a call to the Wisconsin Institution for the Deaf as principal. This position he retained until called to the Illinois Institution in 1868.

Dr. Milligan, like many others in the early days of articulation teaching, was rather skeptical as to results. In 1868 he visited the Clarke School, and his remarks at the Conference of Principals, held soon after at Washington, show how his opinions were changed: "It is difficult for any person to knock over all the work of years; even though he has been laboring to build a cob-house, it makes him distressed to see it fall. I do not mean to say that our teaching has been of the cob-house order. I went to Northampton not believing, for physiological reasons, that those who had no auditory nerve could ever learn to speak and articulate; and it is not pleasant for me to find out that they can. (Laughter.) I am willing to say that I am disappointed; but it is so, that they do talk. We cannot get around it, and we have got to put up with it, for they won't stop talking for all our resolutions."

In 1882 he severed his connection with the Illinois Institution to accept the chair of history and English literature in Illinois College: His departure was a distinct loss to the institution, where he was looked upon as the most influential member of the faculty. His influence over his pupils was great; uniting gentleness with firmness, he ruled by love and in return won the love of his pupils. They keenly felt the contagion of his manliness, his sympathy, his thirst for knowledge. He gave them time and toil without stint. Their religious instruction called forth his deepest thought and most earnest endeavor. If he had done nothing else for the deaf, his religious instructions would have made him one of their greatest benefactors.

(One of the striking elements in his teaching was its intensely personal character. President Garfield once said that his idea of a college was a log, with Mark Hopkins on one end and himself on the other. That was a fine tribute to the eternal indispensability of the personal

element in teaching, to the need of exalted and earnest character. Whatever else gets into a pupil's mind, the teacher himself gets there ultimately, and his teaching is largely determined by what he is. The primary and the final qualification of a great teacher is that he shall be a great soul. This is what profoundly impressed me in my contact with Dr. Milligan. He did not deliver over something to his pupils; he simply communicated himself.

When Dr. Milligan entered upon his labors in Illinois College, he was no stranger to the workings of its educational machinery, having been a trustee for seven years. As was the case at the school for the deaf, his value as an educator was quickly appreciated and he won the love and veneration of every one by his personal worth. He did not identify himself with the college alone, but was found in every movement for the social, educational, or religious betterment of his fellow citizens, and was founder or a leading member of several of the most prominent societies. He was the author of "The Government of the People of the State of Illinois," issued in conjunction with Francis Newton Thorpe's "The Government of the Nation."

Dr. and Mrs. Milligan had very nearly rounded out a half century of unusually congenial married life. His wife survives him, also a daughter, Dr. Josephine Milligan, and a son, Laurence E. Milligan, a teacher in the Colorado School for the Deaf. Three sons have preceded him to the better land. The following extract from a tribute in the columns of the *Jacksonville Journal* tells how he was universally regarded:

"With the bereaved wife and children, all Jacksonville mourns the loss of Dr. Milligan. To know him was to love him, and a more widely respected citizen the community never had. Noble, constant, gifted, he was an ideal gentleman, and to the very end of his long and useful life he maintained his activity and, withal, his kindness and

thoughtfulness for others. Of literary, retiring tastes, still he was ever ready to take his stand for public welfare, and was broad-minded enough not to be bigoted. He was a friend to all; a lover of books; a patriotic citizen; a scholarly professor; a talented writer; and, above all, a noble Christian man."

EDWARD P. CLEARY,
Instructor in the Illinois Institution, Jacksonville, Illinois.

SOME LESSONS IN AURICULAR TRAINING.

WHILE the idea of developing hearing through exercise is an old one to all teachers of the deaf, and a course in auricular training is an important part of the curriculum of most institutions for those who have lost their hearing, still the results gained through four years' systematic training of the hearing of a partially deaf child, Josephine Crane, will be of interest because they show not only that this training has had a decidedly beneficial influence over the function of speech, but also that it has been a great factor in lessening the sense of isolation often experienced by the deaf.

At the time auricular training began, Josephine was twelve years old, and with her teacher had been for four years a member of the Laboratory School of the Department of Education in the University of Chicago. She had lost her hearing before speech had been acquired, and it was known some hearing still existed, occasional use being made of it by reading close to her ear as she followed on the printed page, but no conscious systematic auricular training had ever been given, her speech having been developed by the oral method.

In the autumn of 1898, through the advice of friends and a consulting specialist, she was taken to Dr. Urbantschitsch,

of Vienna. The latter tested her hearing in the usual way with tuning-forks, the harmonica, and other musical instruments. She heard none of the tones of the tuning-fork, being tested with contra C, C, and C'', while of the more intense tones of the harmonica she heard all in her right ear, and also perceived the voice, intense and close to her ear. Much more intensity of the harmonica tones was needed for the left ear, in which she was at first unable to distinguish the voice.

After making this examination Dr. Urbantschitsch pronounced her one of those who, having lost their hearing in earliest childhood before a knowledge of language had been acquired, are still capable of hearing all tones if their *intensity* be great enough. He was also convinced that it would be possible to develop this weakened sense of hearing, and to train it to perceive sounds of much less intensity. Accordingly he started in on a series of exercises with the vowel sounds, words, phrases, and short sentences. It goes without saying that at the outset the trained sense of sight was brought to the aid of the feeble and untrained hearing. Before each exercise it was said to her, "A will be spoken in your ear; now I will say E," and again, "You must tell the difference between A and E." After exercises of this kind with the vowel sounds, simple words such as "twenty, thirty, Vienna," or short phrases, such as "How are you, how do you do," etc., were used almost immediately. Exercises with the harmonica, when she was asked to reproduce the tones heard, with music-boxes, and organ tones were also given, and her attention was continually drawn to noises of all kinds.

Three weeks of such training, ten minutes thrice daily, proved too much; the child was attacked by dizziness, and a nervous headache most severe in the region of the right hearing center. This soon passed off, however, and on her return home in December, 1898, regular training was recom-

■nenced and carried on during the winter months, one or two words or a new combination of words being added almost daily. Variation in intensity, pitch, distance, and rapidity of speaking were also introduced. These exercises at varying distances occupied about ten minutes of the daily half-hour period devoted to auricular training, and were especially taxing; but at that particular stage of her development they were of great value in training the attention to recognize stimuli of varying intensities. Josephine's own interest in them was keen, manifesting itself in suggestions as to ways and means. She herself measured off the spaces on the gymnasium floor and showed enthusiasm over her power to hear at increased distances.

The material used consisted of words and short sentences very familiar to her ear. As we increased the distance I was generally forced to put both hands to my mouth, thus forming a sort of a trumpet. Josephine stood with her side toward me and sometimes placed her hands to her ear in the same position. The order of proceedings was as follows: The exercise of word or sentence was given, and she always repeated or wrote down what she heard. If her reproduction was wrong the exercise was again given at the same distance, and she again repeated what she heard. If after three or four trials she was still unable to hear the exercise correctly she was either told, or the distance between us was decreased, until she could be made to understand. In giving a very familiar sentence, the order of the words was sometimes inverted, thus changing its rhythm and making it somewhat more difficult to understand.

The following are a few exercises given in March, 1899, six months after the training began. The exercises are numbered I, II, and III, etc.; the distance between us during each exercise is next given; the exercise used follows, and then her repetition of the sounds she heard, marked first trial, second trial, etc., as the case may be.

March 1, 1899.

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|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Exercise I, 3 feet. | Where were you last month? |
| (First trial) | When were you last month? |
| (Second trial) | Where were you last month? |
| Exercise II, 5 feet. | What are you doing to-day |
| (First trial) | What are you doing to-day |
| Exercise III, 6 feet. | When coming are you? |
| (First trial) | When coming are you? |
| Exercise IV, 6 feet. | Are you very well? |
| (First trial) | Are you pretty well? |
| (Second trial) | Are you very well? |
| Exercise V, 8 feet. | What are you doing? |
| (First trial) | Where are you, Dodie? |
| (Second trial) | Where are you, Josephine? |
| (Third trial) | Where are you feeling? |
| (Fourth trial) | What are you going? |
| (Fifth trial) | Where are you going? |
| (Sixth trial) | What are you doing? |
| Exercise VI, 8 feet. | (a) Vienna. |
| (First trial) | Vienna. |
| | (b) Copenhagen. |
| (First trial) | Copennagen. |
| (Second trial) | Copenhagen. |

March 8, 1899.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| Exercise I, 11 feet. | Where are you going? |
| (First trial) | What are you doing? |
| (Second trial) | Where are you going? |
| Exercise II, 15 feet. | Who was that? |
| (First trial) | Who loves Vienna? |
| (Second trial) (after thinking) | Who was that? |

(Just before giving this last exercise, perhaps I should mention, some one had passed through the gymnasium, thus giving cause for the question.)

Exercise III, 20 feet. Where are you going?
(First trial) Where are you going?

Exercise IV, 25 feet. Papa came home.
(First trial) Papa is home.
(Second trial) Papa was home.
(Third trial) Papa came home.

Exercise V, 30 feet. Vienna (3 trials).
Odessa (one trial).
Berlin (told).

March 17, 1899.

Exercise I, 40 feet. Vienna (one trial).
Odessa (one trial)

In repeating this last exercise Josephine imitated exactly my manner of saying it, laying stress on the syllable on which I had laid stress, and lengthening the other syllables of the word in the same way that I had done.

In most of this work, following a suggestion of Dr. Urbantschitsch's, I have often given Josephine her own false reproduction of an exercise through her hearing, and then the correct form of the same exercise as a means of comparison.

Using a song which the children in the school were learning, with the copy before us, it was a custom to read a line here and there, her part in the exercise being to point to the line which had been read. Another exercise was a visiting game. She came to see me and we conversed, she depending on her ear alone and answering me after repeating my question. An example of this game is as follows: "Come in. How are you? Are you feeling pretty well? How is the Emperor to-day? Has he been sick? That is too bad. Is he better? How is the Princess?" etc.

Perhaps one or two quotations from my diary kept at

this time will illustrate her awakening interest in noise of various kinds. I find written on January 29, 1899, "Josephine heard herself jumping rope to-day. Yesterday in the gymnasium she heard at least six commands given to the class by the gymnasium instructor, who took pains to be near her at times and speak in a loud voice." Again on February 21, "Josephine heard the puffing noise of an engine at least two hundred feet away, also the shoveling of coal when about fifteen feet distant, and the crackling of flames in a stove while listening at the door."

Many such new sounds came to her consciousness during these days, each hailed with joy, and increasing the interest she took in her own progress.

I will introduce here a lesson given April 12, 1899, to show one of her first struggles in recognizing, without the aid of sight, a word perfectly familiar to her eye, but which she had never heard.

It was repeated in her ear, "We are going to the theatre this afternoon." She answered, "We are going——," but refused to formulate any sound for the word *theatre*. I gave her simply this word, lengthening and emphasizing each syllable, and then went over the whole sentence once more. She repeated, "We are going this afternoon——" Once again I said, "The-a-ter." She said, "This after." Again, "The-a-ter," whereupon she took a pencil and wrote the following, "Te-a-ter." Once more I tried, making the aspirate as noticeable as possible, and she repeated, without writing, "The-a-ter," just as I had said it, with no recognition of the word at all, whereupon I repeated it quickly and in a natural manner, and she reproduced it in the same manner, again without the slightest consciousness of its meaning. After another trial it suddenly dawned upon her that it was a word with which she was perfectly familiar. This was only one of many instances where there was delay in making connection between an impression received

through the ear and an idea perfectly familiar to her through sensations previously received by means of the eye.

Exercises of this and others of similar kind were continued, with interruptions from time to time, throughout the year of 1899, when we found that the child was growing tired of the monotonous drill on words and short sentences requiring correct reproduction at all times. The time had evidently come for some more interesting work.

The school where Josephine has studied, as I have stated before, is the Laboratory School for hearing children of the Department of Education in the University of Chicago. Dr. John Dewey, Director of this school, has at all times very kindly advised me concerning Josephine's work. Shortly after the beginning of work in the autumn of 1899, I talked with Dr. Dewey of the work with Josephine, the methods used, and the progress she had made, mentioning also the fact that she was losing interest in the exercises as they were then being given. After hearing all I had to tell him of Josephine's condition, Dr. Dewey said that, while he did not know whether her actual hearing power would increase or not, of this he was sure, that sooner or later Josephine would co-ordinate her hearing vocabulary with her reading and speaking vocabulary. We concluded therefore to give Josephine as *much* language as possible through her ear, in order that this co-ordination might be hastened.

Accordingly, instead of spending all the half hour a day working on a few sentences and words, and insisting on the correct reproduction of every syllable and sound, the hearing was exercised with little stories, conversations of her schoolmates, or material gathered from her school work, all of which renewed her interest in the work to a very great extent. On certain days were also exercises in differentiating like-sounding words and sentences, and also the

exercises at varying distances already cited. When reading or telling a story or conversation as a hearing exercise, I sat at her side, a little back, with my mouth about ten inches from her ear, using a voice a good deal louder and more intense than the ordinary conversational tone. I was not particular that she should get all the words of the story through her hearing, but insisted on just enough to be sure that she got the meaning of the story, and when it was necessary allowed her either to see the word or sentence or else read it from my lips.

Another exercise, a little more taxing, we were able to conduct in this way: A very short story was read in her ear for the first time, and she wrote on paper exactly what she heard, not stopping then to correct what was wrong. The next day the same story was read again, with the result that a few more words were right, and the following day a third reading resulted in a still more correct version of the story. This was done with both ears, but only the exercises with the right ear are given throughout this paper, as there was always much uncertainty about the actual results of the hearing in the left ear. The material used for this work was one of Tolstoi's fables of the simplest character. During the summer she had read this fable, but for four months had not seen it. As we worked together over this exercise, she was much interested and helped me with suggestions as was her custom. "Read it just once," she said. "If I do not get it, never mind; I will put down what I hear." This is the story as I read it to her, pausing after each phrase of three or four words for her to write what she had heard.

THE BLIND MAN AND THE MILK.

"One blind from birth asked a man who could see, 'What color is milk?' The man who could see replied, 'The color of milk is like white paper.' The blind man asked, 'This color then rustles in the hand like paper?' The man who could see replied, 'No; it is white, like white

flour.' The blind man asked, 'Then it is soft and pliable like flour, is it?' The man who could see replied, 'No; it is simply white like a rabbit.' "

The following is the result of the third day's reading, which is exactly as she wrote it:

"THE BLIND MAN.

"A man writes the horse asked a man what is the milk, what color is milk? The man who could see the milk, 'what color of milk is like white paper.' • The blind man asked, this color that rustles in the hand like paper. A man who could see replied, 'No, it is white like white flower.' Blind man asked, 'it soft and flierable, [*pliable* spelt in her ear], like flower is it. The man who could see replied No; it is simply white like rabbit."

A few days after this third reading I let her see the story and read it to herself. Then I read it again in her ear, and had her correct as many mistakes as she was able.

During this winter of 1900 Josephine began some work in music with Mrs. Kern, teacher of music in the Laboratory School. Tones of different pitch were sung in Josephine's ear, her task being to distinguish which tone was higher or lower. Her facility in doing this varied of course with different days. In another exercise Mrs. Kern sang two notes in her ear, the first only being written on the staff. Josephine's duty here was to guess the position of the second note on the staff. After a number of such exercises the child was able to judge often with great correctness the position of the second note. An exercise in singing was then begun. A tone was sung into her ear and she tried to reproduce it. In the beginning, as a general thing, she could sing a tone of higher pitch better than a lower, and some of her higher tones gradually became quite correct and pleasing. As it was hard for her to hold a tone at the same pitch for any length of time, Mrs.

Kern then took up that point. She showed Josephine how her voice fell from one pitch to another in this way,

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telling her that she must hold the tone during an entire breath. Later, two tones were sung in her ear and she was asked to reproduce both, the result being that she rarely got both right, but sometimes one. From two notes Mrs. Kern went on to three, ascending and descending, singing first and then writing on the staff. She tried using different vowel sounds, such as *ah*, *oo*, *ee*, etc., and when Josephine tired of these vowel sounds, words were taken involving them. Later short phrases were taken involving these same words, such as "Clear and cool and beautiful." "Beautiful clover all the world over," etc. Each day, however, the exercise of distinguishing tones of different pitch and the reproduction of the same were made use of.

A little later Josephine was most anxious to compose some music herself. With one of her teachers she was writing a little play for a younger group of children. It was suggested that she write a song to be sung as a lullaby in this play. After some work on rhythm she composed the following song, which is entirely her own:

Lullaby.

I.

Lullaby, lullaby,
My baby dear,
Go to sleep, go to sleep,
Do not fear.

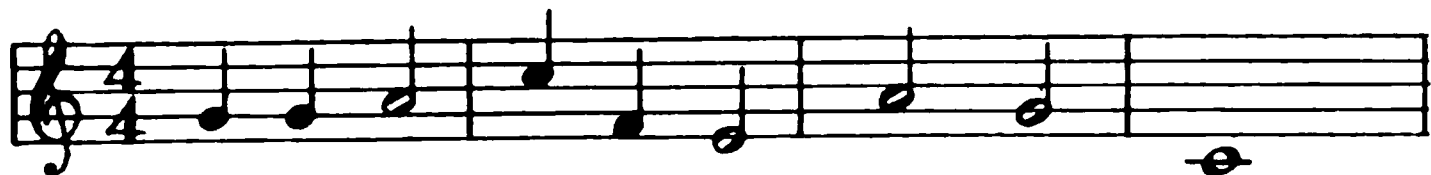
II.

See the moon, see the moon,
Fairies will sing,
The air is cool, the air is cool,
It is spring.

To compose the melody was Josephine's next task. She took the words and began to sing. Her variations in pitch were good, and while her tones seldom rang true, still they were sufficiently accurate to show the note desired, so that Mrs. Kern was able to take the melody from Josephine's singing of it. At those times when she was unable to give Mrs. Kern an idea of the tones she desired, she would point to the place on the staff where she wished the note to be placed. The result was an exquisite melody, almost perfect in form. She made a great point of having the air die away in soft low tones at the end, where the baby is supposed to go to sleep. Josephine also gave Mrs. Kern the pulse of the melody by her singing of it. This experiment has never been tried a second time, which would naturally give it more worth. The following is the melody with the words:



Lul - la - by, Lul - la - by, My ba - by dear,
See the moon, See the moon, Fairies will sing,



Go to sleep, Go to sleep, Do not fear.
The air is cool, The air is cool, It is spring.

Josephine then tried to learn to sing this song and did very good work with the last part especially, where she often got the pitch correct for one or two measures.

During this winter she attended two or three orchestral concerts. Her experience on these occasions was, to use her own expression, that she heard the high loud parts, felt the low loud parts, but neither felt nor heard the soft low parts.

She also went to a concert given by Sousa's brass band,

where much of the music was very rhythmical. Before going she did not seem to care much about it, but on her return her face was bright with pleasure from having heard the music. She said, "I can hear the band very well."

During the fall and winter of the following year almost no exercises with the hearing were carried on, owing to a tedious typhoid fever illness, but in the late winter and early spring, during a period of a month and a half, Josephine had three hours work a week with Mrs. Milward Adams of Chicago. Mrs. Adams during her long experience in training the speaking voice had often met with cases of so-called tone-deafness, where the persons in question were unable to reproduce tones of certain pitch by means of imitation through the auditory sensations alone. Having found that such persons were aided in securing these intonations by association of the sensation of vibration of their own voices in head or chest tones, the auditory sensation and the motor sensation of corresponding gesture: recognizing a certain similarity between such cases and that of a partially deaf person, such as Josephine, Mrs. Adams was led to believe that she could increase the register of Josephine's voice, and at the same time train her defective hearing to perceive tones of different pitch, by bringing to its aid the other senses of touch and motion.

The breath, as the basis of all rhythm, is naturally the starting point in all of Mrs. Adams's work. The power of making all sounds, irrespective of pitch, depends upon the breath and the method of breathing. Furthermore, as good rhythmic breathing presupposes good bodily carriage and bodily ease, exercises in the correct standing, sitting, and walking positions naturally precede this work.

Rhythmic breathing gained, Mrs. Adams proceeds to increase and establish the register of the voice by locating in head or chest the vibrations of tones of varying pitch required to express sentiments corresponding to the mental,

emotional, and vital natures of man. Sentences containing these sentiments were used as exercises, and to aid further in establishing pitch gesture was used.

Of gesture Mrs. Adams recognizes two kinds. The literal or primitive gesture, which is a substitute for the word itself; and the suggestive gesture which corresponds to, emphasizes, and completes the meaning of a word or phrase. Thus by the aid of gesture and the inflections of the voice many different shades of meaning can be given to one and the same word.

In this work the monosyllables and phrases used were repeated in Josephine's ear that she might learn to recognize the inflections of the voice due to changes in sentiment. At the same time the corresponding gestures were given. For example, the interrogative "Yes?" was accompanied by the rising gesture, the declarative "No," by the descending hand; the phrase "How do you do?" by an upward curve; and the word "Indeed" by the lower curve. Josephine was also encouraged to improvise her own sentences, and to learn to express them.

From simple words and phrases Mrs. Adams went on to the interpretation of selections of both prose and poetry, always supplementing her auditory impressions of voice inflections, corresponding to changes in sentiment, with the gestures and attitudes appropriate to these changes.

These gestures were classified, as a means of illustration for Josephine, in accordance with the gesture chart used at the *Théâtre Français* in Paris, where Mrs. Adams received her training.

At the end of six weeks of this work, Josephine stood before a class of some twenty persons, to many of whom she was a stranger, and repeated a series of phrases arranged to employ all the tones of the voice register. Her manner of doing this was such that few guessed that she had not normal hearing.

The effects of this training were thus marked not only as regards her voice, which became more flexible, but also as regards her general attitude. A more human element made itself felt in her nature, as though she had acquired a new idea of human relationships and new ways of expressing the same.

In the spring of 1901, she again visited Dr. Urbantschitsch and in the fall began instruction in German, one hour a day six times a week, with Mr. Merkl, special teacher in the Lower Austrian Institution for the Deaf. This instruction was begun at first with the idea that the German sounds would form a new and greater stimulus to the hearing. Her hearing vocabulary in English had increased so much that she was beginning to depend more and more upon the rhythm and association of words for the meaning of sentences than upon the actual sounds of the words.

As Mr. Merkl could speak no English, after the first week or so all intercourse between him and his pupil had to be in German. The articulation work and hearing exercises were carried on side by side. Each sound and all combinations of sound were learned on the lips and through the ear at the same time, the one sense aiding and supplementing the wants of the other. During the last month of this work Mr. Merkl laid great emphasis on the accent of words, the stress, rhythm, and variation of tone in the sentence work, and also spent a little of the hour each day on exercises in differentiating like-sounding words and sentences. The following is a dictation in German at the end of six months' instruction:

“Waren Sie in *Preussen*? *Napoleon* war in *Egypten*. Kennen Sie *Chicago*? Ich habe heute in der *Zeitung* von Ihrem Papa gelesen. Professor *Masarik* wird nach *Chicago* kommen. Was wird (d)er dort machen? Er wird *Vorlesungen* halten. Er ist ein *Periemter* [*beruhmter*] *Univer-*
sitäts Professor. Ist *Masarik* ein Amerikaner? Ich habe

zwanzig Schüler und zwei Schülerinnen. Die Schülerinnen sind fleissiger als die Schüler. Ich bin in meinem Garten gewesen. Was haben Sie dort gethan? Haben Sie viele Briefe *geschrieben*? Der beste Kaffee kommt aus *Arabien*. In Amerika *trinkt* man viel Tea."

In this exercise there were several new words, such as "*Preussen*," "*Egypten*," "*Masarik*," "*Vorlesungen*," "*berühmter*," which it was necessary to tell her, and the other italicized words had to be repeated in her ear more than once. Mr. Merkl gave this dictation in the expressive manner of a German. His mouth was about six inches from her ear, and his voice louder than the ordinary conversational tone.

During these six months Josephine had had no special time set apart for hearing exercises in English. In giving her instruction in English, history, and number work, a loud, clear tone was always used, so that she might hear and read the lips at the same time, and it often happened in the course of a conversation that a phrase or short sentence was understood without the use of the eye. As a basis for comparing Josephine's hearing vocabulary in the year 1902 with that of two years previous, I quote here a dictation given at the same time as the German one, April, 1902. This exercise was given entirely through her ear. The words underlined needed repetition, and it was necessary to put two of them in combination with other familiar words before their meaning was understood. The story is of a little peasant boy, Rosegger, written by himself, and telling of his first visit to Vienna. As far as I know, Josephine had never heard this story before. There were, I believe, no new words in this dictation; that is no words she had never heard before.

"What are you doing, boy?" asked a *gentleman* with *spectacles* and a *forehead* which seemed to reach *right over his head*. "Oh, sir, I am so *glad* that you have come. I

would like to see the Emperor so much, if you please.”
 “Indeed; but, my dear fellow, that is a *rather difficult matter* to *arrange*.” “Oh,” I said, “it is very easy; everybody can speak to the Emperor *Joseph*; even the *peasant*, for I have read all about it.” “The Emperor *Joseph*?” the gentleman asked. “Then I told him *how I had come from Styria*, to see the Emperor *Joseph*. He looked at me for some time, with a serious face; then he smiled, and *he looked serious* when I told him *a great many things* about the kind Emperor *Joseph* that I had learned by heart.”

In the summer and autumn of 1902, after her return home, Josephine again took up her German an hour a day with Fräulein Bertha Hagen, of Hamburg, and has continued her study of the language this winter. Fräulein Hagen uses Josephine's hearing a great deal during this period by giving her a little dictation almost every day through her hearing and by reading to her. Each new word or phrase is both heard and seen and, as is the case in English, her hearing is of the greatest help in getting new sounds. During the past three months Josephine's German vocabulary has increased wonderfully, and her interest in this new language never seems to wane. In the following dictation of twenty minutes' length, the words underlined had to be given more than once, and several of them needed the assistance of sight before they could be understood. I believe it has been mentioned that Josephine's hearing varies greatly from day to day. The following dictation in German was given on a day when her hearing was below par, and consequently is not her best work.

“Die Hochzeit in Kana.”

“In Kanaan befand sich eine kleine Stadt, die hiess Kana. In der Stadt Kana war einmal eine Hochzeit. Auf dieser Hochzeit waren auch die Mutter Marie und der Herr Jesus und seine Jünger. Als sie gegessen und getrunken hatten, bemerkte die Mutter Marie, dass der Wein alle wurde.”

The following words were quite unknown to her, "*Kana*," "*befand*," "*Jnger*," "*bemerkte*."

During this year the auricular training in English has been more general in character; that is, I have tried to introduce the hearing exercises into all of her work; into her work in English by reading aloud into her ear, she following me as I read on the printed page; into her number work, by giving her directions through her ear, etc. More specific work has been done also in the form of dictation through the ear alone. A more recent exercise has been to read a familiar story in her ear while she busies herself with some handiwork, such as sewing, drawing, or playing with something. The idea of listening while doing something else pleased her, but just how far we shall be able to carry this exercise remains to be seen. The following is a dictation given through the ear January 15, 1903, which can be compared with that given nine months ago in Vienna, the proportion of words not heard to words heard being then as 1:4, and in this dictation below as 1:5.

"An Extract from David Copperfield.

"He looked at me *thoughtfully for a few moments, evidently* without thinking about me at all; and then *his kind face* expressed extraordinary pleasure and he took me *by both hands*. 'Why, my dear Copperfield,' said the doctor; 'You are a man. How do you do? I am delighted to see you. My dear Copperfield, how much, very much, you have improved. You are quite—yes—dear me!' I hoped *he was well* and *Mrs. Strong*, too. 'Oh, dear, yes,' said the doctor; 'Annie is quite well and she will be delighted to see you. You *were always* her favorite, she said so *last night*, when I showed her your letter. And—yes, to be sure, you *recollect* Mr. Jack Maldon?' '*Perfectly, sir.*' '*Of course,*' said the doctor, 'to be sure. He's pretty well, too.' '*Has he come home, sir?*' I inquired."

This brings the actual work up to date, but there are perhaps a few general observations gathered during these four years of training which have their place here.

At all times since beginning this work in hearing, following Dr. Urbantschitsch's suggestion, we have directed Josephine's attention to the numerous street sounds. She was also encouraged to listen to music and in the second year of the training derived much pleasure and satisfaction from a pianola. Little by little she grew into the habit of listening, and scarcely a week passed that did not bring with it some new sound sensation—a street-car bell, the conductor calling the names of the streets, the newsboy's call, the hoofs of the horses striking the pavement, the rattle of wagons, children, and peoples' voices in play and excitement. Once a sparrow twittered loudly, just outside the window. "What was that?" she cried.

The following is an extract from my diary, May 1 1899: "This morning she heard the big drops of rain falling on the roof just outside the window. She said she did not hear them all the time, but only occasionally when the noise was very great. She remarked, 'I thought I should never hear the rain. I never heard it before.' Again, she has heard the roosters crow in the garden, the 'pip, pip' of a newborn chick held close to her ear, and, lately happened, the song of a lark some fifty feet above the meadow where we stood. All these experiences have called forth looks of pathetic delight and the expression 'Why, I never heard that before!'"

It was especially recommended by Dr. Urbantschitsch that Josephine should become accustomed to the sound of other voices than those of her teachers. She soon began to compare the voices of the members of her own family, and to realize that the tones of men, women, and children are different in quality.

During the past year she has often said that when one is speaking or reading to her, if the voice be raised so that she can hear and read the lips at the same time, she understands speech much more easily than when simply listening and reading.

In the winter and spring of 1902, Josephine began to show a memory for sounds. There are certain words and phrases and certain sounds, the thought of which brings with them the tone image as they first fell upon her ear. On occasion, as is so often the case with normal persons, when the attention is fully occupied, an actual sound will remain unnoticed until the moment of interest is passed. During one of these periods of abstraction she locked the door of her room; later she asked me, "Did I lock the door?" Oh, yes, I remember the sound of the key in the lock." I said, "Are you sure you did not feel it?" "Oh, no," she answered, "I heard it." Again one day I said to her in a loud voice as I sat beside her, "I am going to give you a dictation in your ear." She made no response, and I thought she had not heard me, and went on with my work. Fully a moment later she said to me, "What did you say to me? Oh, yes, I remember, 'I am going to give you a dictation in your ear.'" One morning in March, 1902, she awoke with a vivid recollection of the sound of an engine letting off steam, as it pulled into the station where she was standing, in her dream. And again a month ago she told me of a dream where she had heard people talking around her. Josephine has also shown much surprise that we can hear sounds at a distance, as for instance a person calling up-stairs, or a street-car going by a closed window.

The general results of these exercises which are of practical worth to my pupil may perhaps be divided into three groups: First, the beneficial results noticed in her speech, the articulation being clearer (due also to other reasons), the voice being much less monotonous, less strident, and the rhythm of the sentence having gradually crept into her manner of speaking. She has gained control over her own voice through hearing as well as feeling. To use her own words "When I hear myself talk I know I am talking too loud."

Second, she is not so cut off in her intercourse with people. If she goes to a concert or an opera she is able to enjoy a little of the music; or in a church, if near enough, some of the organ tones reach her, as recently happened in Vienna on Easter morning; in a carriage at night, in a dark room, or when out of doors after dark, she can often be drawn into conversation by speaking clearly close to her ear.

Third, the training she has undergone through these exercises has resulted not only in an increased power of attention to hearing sensations, but it has also been of the greatest general educational value.

As to the increase in actual hearing power, the following test may be of interest. As previously stated, in 1898 she was unable to hear any of the tones of the tuning-fork. In the spring of 1902, after her special training in German, when tested with exactly the same instruments as were used three years previous, namely, the tuning-forks C and C', she heard the tones of both in the right and left ears. Again, the tone of voice used in dictation and conversation is much lower in pitch and of less intensity than that used two years previous.

In conclusion a little anecdote during our stay in Vienna may illustrate better than any words at hand of how great avail these years of training have been in removing a little of the barrier between the consciousness and the world of sounds.

One glorious sunny day we were standing on the top of a forest-clad mountain. The view around us in the bright sunshine was of the most charming and picturesque houses of Vienna. Now a little distance away from the life of whose streets we could see the towers and spires of St. Stephen's. "Can you hear what they are saying?" I asked my friend. "No, it is too far away," she replied. "I have heard it," and rather soberly down the mountain we went. "I have heard it," and a little later as we were reaching the foot of the mountain she exclaimed,

“That is what it is like to be deaf. To stand all alone on a mountain; to see, but not to hear.” A pause—and then, “I am coming down a little. I can hear more sounds than before, all through Dr. Urbantschitsch.”

ANNA R. CAMP,
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THE NOTE-BOOK.

“THE Lord gave the white man a book and the Indian a memory,” said the red man. And he was not altogether mistaken, for the book has often overdone its work and left the white man sadly in need of the very thing the Indian claimed so abundantly—memory—and possibly with less skill in manipulating his mental machinery than if it had been otherwise. That, at least, is a large part of the story, so far as the use of the note-book goes, in all too many cases.

The subject of the article must not be confounded with the note-book or record kept by the teacher, the scrap-book, nor the book in which manuscript lessons* in lieu of a text-book are given. It is simply the book in which are preserved by pupils such matters as names, questions, phrases, sentences, journals, reproductions, stories, lectures, compositions, number work, etc., for future study or reference. Some teachers use such a book in addition to or in conjunction with the text-book.

It is now about seven years since I began to believe that such an aid was not only unnecessary but harmful, and, with some diffidence at first, discontinued it. But now I should no more think of going back to it than would the modern medical practitioner of going back to bloodletting or the heroic doses of his predecessors. A little inquiry

*For my position in regard to manuscript lessons see the *Annals* for January, 1903, page 21.

among former pupils in regard to the benefits they derive from the note-book brought out the two following replies. One graduate, taking down from a shelf a lot of dusty yellow books, said that what he had gained in filling them up he had lost in time, practice, and education. Another, a young lady, said that her note-book was of no value beyond being an object of curiosity to her folks at home.

The practice of employing the note-book is quite extensive, if not universal. A lady who had taught for a short time in a school for the deaf once remarked to the writer that the deaf children wanted to copy everything she wrote on the large slate. Pupils transferred to my classes invariably call for the note-book, but I tell them that boys and girls in my room do not copy things, but learn them. Nor do hearing schools appear to have escaped this invasion of the note-book in some form or other. Recently an old educator, who was relating his experiences at a meeting of public school teachers, said, in effect, that in his day scholars were expected to make what they learned their own by a mental process, but now it was put down on paper and that was the end of it.

Of all books the note-book is the most quickly consigned to oblivion as soon as the pupil is through with it. Far from being unreasonable this is very natural, for, as I have written elsewhere, "Each stage of physical growth, advancement in knowledge, or change in life or circumstances gives rise to new phases of thought and feeling." So every stage, no matter how short, should be made the instrument of a vigorous stirring up by a use of all the living powers at the pupils' command in order that they may contribute their full share to his development, but this will be impossible until we are delivered from the tyranny of the note-book and everything like it.

Some have expressed surprise at my attitude toward the note-book. But my experience has pretty well

convinced me that it is rather a hindrance than a help. Acquiring an education is a serious business, and involves much strenuous labor. The pupil is in school to learn, and a good way to facilitate this business for him is to encumber him as little as possible, that he may be free to use his own mind and in his own way to the greatest advantage. Things are best learned by doing them, and the best education is secured by doing a few rather than many things. One thing at a time should also be the rule until it is mastered, whether great or small. Two industrial instructors were asked if a boy was allowed to pass from one piece of work to another before he could do the work in hand and do it well, and their answers were an emphatic "no." Why should not the same rule be enforced in the literary department? A noted artist gave this advice to his pupils: "Practice assiduously what you already know and other things will become clear to you." Pupils should not be encouraged to reach too high lest they fall and make shipwreck of what little they do know.

"The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight,
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night."

That any time is saved by the note-book is too much of a delusion even to merit attention. One thing is certain: in nine cases out of ten it leads to cramming or going over far more ground than the ability of the class will warrant. Without it the teacher is enabled to gauge the receptive and productive capacity of his pupils to a nicety, because he knows just what they can do. A very prominent educator told me not long ago that he always contends that the public schools are attempting twice too much, and the schools for the deaf certainly cannot plead complete immunity from this charge when the number and character

of the subjects taught and the time at their disposal are taken into account. Last year, at one of the meetings of the Teachers' Association in the Wisconsin School, Mr. J. J. Murphy, himself a deaf-mute, gave some of his experience as a pupil which throws light on the evil effect on the mind of overloading with too many studies, particularly in the case of the deaf. He said: "During the latter part of my pupilage, I learned lesson after lesson, aside from practice in writing compositions, letters, journals, etc., in succeeding branches of study until I got lost in the boundless realm of literature. So I had to resort to repetition in order that I might stand on my own merits. Repetition is the most important factor in acquiring language."

If ever there was a time and place where the old saying "Make haste slowly" should be strictly observed it is here, for this reason among others, that with the deaf knowledge and language have to be acquired at the same time. We know only what we can express correctly or do well; all else is vague, indefinite. When the teacher shall have learned to measure impression and expression in due proportion, then will the golden age in education have been reached.

In doing away with the note-book the pupil is thrown almost entirely on his own resources and this leads to self-reliance and that begets confidence; it cultivates and strengthens as nothing else will his memory—direct, verbal, and associate. The keeping of the mind continually concentrated, active, alert, and aggressive is a kind of mental activity as positive in its character as copying is negative, to say nothing of the intelligent insight and individuality that are developed. It must ever be borne in mind that true progress is always along the lines of greatest resistance.

Below I give with comments a synopsis of what my class in the intermediate department was doing in English up

to the time of the mid-winter examination. The class is only in school during the forenoon from eight to twelve, which is practically little over three and a half hours. It has one hour and forty-five minutes for study in the evening and one hour in drawing twice a week, the rest of its working time being spent in the industrial department. My experience without the note-book has not been confined to this department by any means, but has covered classes much lower and also the highest classes in the school. At present the remainder of my time in the school-room is taken up in the afternoon with teaching English to a rotating class two grades below my own.

Scrap-book: Fifty proverbs and sayings and "Home, Sweet Home," "My Country, 'Tis of Thee," and two short poems. Much of this work was explained and memorized. In the examination each pupil was asked to begin his paper with a quotation, which all did.

Questions: The class asked questions on the following subjects which, with their answers, were corrected: Winter, Fall, Weather, Travel, Thanksgiving, Trades, Professions, Occupations, Sunday, Church, School, Wages, Salary, Stores, Newspapers, Employment, Clothing, Death, Holidays, Christmas. When no subject was assigned, the pupils asked general questions, *i.e.*, questions about anything they liked. Personal questions formed another class of inquiries. To illustrate, take Mr. W. A. Cochrane and let the pupils ask all sorts of questions about him. This was some of the most interesting work of the class. Very often the same subject would be repeated two or three times. The effect on the language of the pupils was plainly noticeable. Considerable time was given to practice in changing from direct quotation and *vice versa*.

For want of a more suitable book, ten stories were reproduced from "Bits of History." Every story, almost without exception, was repeated three times before a new one

was taken up. Every time it was written there was a variation in the language with decided improvement in every way. Pains were taken to discourage "parrot" work, with excellent results. A number of these stories have been published in the Wisconsin *Times*.

In sentence building the verbs *tell*, *ask*, *say*, and *take* were developed, from eight to ten different constructions being formed of each verb. In this way the phrases or phraseology peculiar to each were brought in. The class was required to write examples of interrogative and declarative sentences and sentences in the active and passive voices. No time was wasted on definitions.

A fair amount of journal and news writing was done. In writing news the pupil was particularly encouraged to tell of anything unusual he had read in the papers. With letters this work is a kind of reproduction, its character varying according to circumstances with here and there the occasional addition of a new word or expression.

The class wrote or rather was taught to write two compositions, one on Winter and one on Horses. They had never done this kind of work before. Care was taken that there was no misunderstanding as to what the term composition meant. Each composition was written three times over, though not in succession. With each repetition the language varied more or less, the pupil showing a better comprehension of both subject and language, frequently bringing in new material.

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THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY AND LANGUAGE.

LAST summer I met again one of my favorite teachers, and when this white-haired man spoke of the work now given in his school there was a touch of bitterness in his tone as he said, in his quaint foreign way: "It is not as it once was in language work. Those teachers pour, pour in their own thoughts or the thoughts of others, or facts, and then pull them all out again, and say, 'See! Is it not fine?' What language for so young children! It is a mockery. I can look over essay after essay and put my finger on the passages twisted from encyclopedias or inserted without even a twist. But it is not the fault of the pupils, for their subjects are to be found only in the encyclopedia. Dead men, dry bones, events of years ago,—why should children tell about these when they cannot tell in tender language the beauty of a sunset on the Mississippi?" It was thus he went on.

Have you ever looked back over the list of teachers whom you had in school days and selected, without hesitation, the one who helped you most? Grave and gay, old and young, they pass before your mind's eye. The very names of some you have forgotten. The names of others you remember, but their personality is but a vague remembrance. But the one or two who really helped you—their names, their faces, their well-loved mannerisms—all are impressed upon your memory.

Analyze those impressions and you will invariably find that those teachers whom you remember well were those who brought you to yourself and your heritage.

They did not pour facts into that growing brain of yours, they but urged you to step forth and grasp those facts as

your own; what you learned with them was yours, not theirs. What you gave was also yours.

The compositions written for such teachers were never biographies, the encyclopedia played but little part in writing on the subjects they assigned, simply because those subjects were not in the encyclopedia; they were in the world about you, or in you, or in your thoughts on this or that event, picture, person, or character.

And yet such a teacher, in giving the tedious details of grammar—nouns and pronouns, subject and predicate—took sentences from history, with stuff in them. A proper noun seemed more a proper noun in such a sentence as “Washington lived at Mount Vernon,” than in “John lived at Clifton.” Why should I have cared for a vague John and a misty Clifton? Washington I knew, and Mount Vernon was that stately mansion with its oaken door and the hole where the cat crawled through to its lonely mistress.

The true correlation of Language and History was reached by such a teacher.

“History is an account of important facts and events.” To many that definition would seem sufficient. Our ordinary school histories are simply that and nothing more.

“Language consists of words, written or spoken,” many say. But the fundamental difference between Language and History is not here shown.

History is other people.

Language is yourself.

There is no true correlation between History and Language as long as we do not put part of ourselves into History.

It may be History to state that Rome rose and fell. But it is not true History until we know *why* Rome rose and fell, and can tell the story in vivid language, putting something of ourselves into that record of mighty power and mighty ruin.

History is not merely a record, it is an answer to the eternal "Why?" It should tell the story of mighty deeds in stirring, mighty language.

That is why dates, *as mere dates*, should receive but a minor place in this higher study of History, unless the date itself is concerned with the *why* of later History, and we must know, for instance, that such a thing was *thus* because it happened after July 4, 1776.

Just so, Language is not alone spoken and written words. There is a language, inarticulate, yet speaking to us continually, would we but listen. It is telling us history in the wordless language of earth and sky, of sun, moon, and stars, in the language of winds and trees, birds and flowers. They, too, have histories, and are trying to have us read those records of strength and patience, of grief and joy, of partings and greetings, of death and life, of pride and beauty, weakness and lowliness. This is not Nature Study, it is History.

Physical Geography, Physiology, Geology, Botany, Astronomy, Chemistry, they are all history, if we put them in their proper sphere.

If we could but realize that everything about us has its history! Take a poor, bruised book. Some one would perhaps say that I used the wrong word and should have said *battered*, as *bruised* conveys the idea of feeling. Just so. There is a personality in the book. It is telling its history in its own language—the history of a pride in its beautiful youth; of a loved owner; of grave and gay friends; of the grief of parting; of journeys, of loss, neglect, accidents; of poverty and shame; of hurts, physical and mental. It is bruised.

Do you not see that all of this is history?

So it is with everything about us. Every little red apple has its history of a sunny, airy home, as it once told Newton the history of gravity. Every little bird has its history

of a gypsy life, living here and there, with red berries and stolen fruit to make up luxury, and a bird heart to throb with terror when puss or a small boy stalks by.

Are these things too trivial to be history?

I think I should rather feel the history of things about me and voice these inarticulate records in language than know that "Columbus discovered America."

In looking back to childhood can you not recall how you looked "over the hills and far away" and knew that some great man must long ago have felt the same longing that you felt and crossed the great river and climbed the summits to see what lay beyond? So then it was that you knew there was a Columbus and a De Soto, although as yet you knew not their names.

For History is written in your own self, your longing, and your dreams.

It is written in those about you.

Could we but read the history of our fellow men, not wholly, but in part! And here is each face telling us its history in wrinkle or smile, in eyes grave and gay, shallow or deep, with the joy or sorrow of life. Faces which speak but another language which we must master and interpret; but another lesson in history which we must con o'er, trying to understand, asking ourselves the *why*; passing over dates as unimportant details, while we strive only to voice in language the mute history of a passing face.

I should far rather read such history and make it mine by giving it language than to write the history of dead men whom the world calls great.

I can see now a quiet child sitting in a nook in a cherry-tree, reading fairy tales which were more real than history later. Tales of elf and gnome, of wood-sprite and water-nymph. The whole world seemed but a fairy tale. Each tree might open and some fair lady step forth.

Now that the child is grown it is still the same; the moon-

light seems made for mist-wreathed fairies stepping from lily or rose; each greener grass-plot speaks eloquently of the fairy ring dancing the night hours away.

It is the history of the "ideal embodied in the real" which fairy tales leave as a precious heritage.

Suppose that child had read only the chronicles of history, where too often might makes right; the tales of terror; the tales of forgotten kings who lived their little ancient day; the tales of men called great with the greatness which wars or politics give. Could that child mind grasp through the history of the real all of the good, the true, the beautiful which triumphs in fairy tales, but not always in history?

There is a time for history as history; but let it not begin too soon; for there is also a time, first, for this other history which is more real to a child,—the history of things about us; the history of birds and flowers, trees and hills. Make the living world tell its history, no matter how commonplace may be the outward appearance of the things which convey that history; a potato, a brown leaf, a dead bird, all have a history.

Perhaps I have seemed to leave out much of the practical. I hope I have. For I begrudge the large share of honor accorded to the practical. The world is full of practical people. We need them—yes. But it is when we meet with one who has lived with the ideal that we realize that the practical is the least of life. In language, above all, is this true.

The more beautifully exquisite language is, the more we love it.

Then how dare we repress our deaf pupils to only practical language; how then shall they ever know the joy of language which is concerned with the ideal?

Do you not remember how you had little love for Latin when it told only the drudging details of Cæsar and his wars and rumors of wars? But when we came to Vergil, all was changed. One was history, plain history; the other

was history—but how different a history; a song with all its beauty of language, its wildness, its human joys, its gods and goddesses, its tragedy of storm and battle.

Or Cicero; there was your impractical man, yet how his language stirred one. History makes Cæsar great. Language has enthroned the other two in as enduring a greatness.

We open history to our deaf pupils, chapter by chapter. Let us correlate Language with History in this higher plane, teaching that men are great not only by deeds but by words, and that to be ignorant of the great books and the great writers is as wrong as to be ignorant of great events and the men who made them.

To know nothing of the words which have made men famous is as strange an ignorance as to know nothing of the crises which have brought forth names which the world will honor as long as there is a language to voice their history.

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MENTAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PUPILS.

I.—MEMORY. II.—THE PERCEPTIVE FACULTY. III.—
THE LOGICAL FACULTY.

I. MEMORY.

THE subject of the memory of deaf pupils was discussed at the meeting of our Teachers' Association in April, 1902. It was confined almost wholly to the presentation of the results of certain tests, and the conclusions deduced therefrom. What is said here has relation only to the intermediate and advanced departments of the school, comprising about half of the pupils.

The committee in charge arranged that there should be

two tests of memory, which, for the sake of brevity, I shall specify as the "short" and "long" tests. Two simple stories were selected, of almost identical length. One of these was written on the blackboard one day, and the pupils were allowed twenty-five minutes to memorize it. Immediately after they were required to reproduce it from memory. This constituted the "short" test. — On the following day the other story was written on the board, and twenty-five minutes allowed as before for memorizing. The next day the pupils were asked to reproduce it, being put on their honor, after a fashion, not to help one another or to make any notes at all. This was the "long" test.

In order to give a better idea of the nature of the test, the two stories are here reproduced:

(The Short Test.)

The Stone in the Road.

There was once a wise prince who wanted to teach his people a lesson of helpfulness. He took a large stone and put it in the middle of the road where many people passed back and forth every day.

By and by some one came along the road and saw the stone. He did not move it out of the road, but turned out and passed by. Other people did the same. Many of them saw the stone, but not one of them was thoughtful enough to lift up the stone and carry it out of the road. Every one turned around it and left it in the middle of the road.

The prince watched the people passing along the road. He saw that no one touched the stone. At last the prince called all his people to meet him by the road one day. When they were all gathered together before him, he told them that he himself put the stone there, to see if any of the people were thoughtful and helpful enough to lift it away. But no one had touched it.

Then the prince himself lifted the stone. Under it there was a purse full of gold coins, and a card on which

was written, "For him who lifts the stone." When the people saw this, many of them were sorry that they had not lifted the stone. It taught them a lesson.

(The Long Test.)

Arnold Winkelried.

Switzerland is a free and independent country now, and has been so for several hundred years. But the Swiss people had to fight bravely for their independence long ago.

About five hundred years ago Austria tried to conquer Switzerland. A large Austrian army invaded the country. The Swiss gathered as large an army as they could, but still it was much smaller than the Austrian army.

The two armies met at a place called Sempach, and a famous battle was fought there. The first rows of the Austrians were armed with long spears. If the Swiss soldiers rushed against these spears they would be killed.

There was a very brave young Swiss captain named Arnold Winkelried.

He loved his country very much. He did not want the Austrians to conquer Switzerland. He told his soldiers to follow him closely. He ran toward the Austrian army. When he got near the first line, he spread out his arms and gathered in as many spears as he could. The spears passed through his body and he fell dead. But his soldiers followed him closely and broke through the Austrian line where the spears were down. The Swiss fought fiercely and won a great victory. The Austrian army was broken up and scattered. Switzerland was free. The name of Arnold Winkelried is remembered and honored in Switzerland to this day.

The above stories were given to the three most advanced classes, containing 37 pupils, and twenty-five minutes were allowed in each case for memorizing.

Results. One pupil was perfect in the short test, and one in the long one. All of the papers were corrected and marked on a scale of 100%. Twenty-six out of 37

pupils scored 90% or more on the short test; only 5 pupils made a failure, 50% or less.

Thirteen pupils ranked above 90% on the long test; 22 above 80%; 8 fell below 50%.

Four out of 37 pupils did better in the long than in the short test; 3 pupils ranked equal in both tests.

According to scholarship the 37 pupils rank as follows: 5 as A (exceptionally bright); 24 as B (average); 8 as C (poor).

Of Class A all showed excellence of memory, ranking above 90% in both tests. Long or short test seemed to make little difference to them.

Of Class B (24 pupils) only 4 showed decidedly poor memory.

Of Class C (8 pupils) 4 showed very poor memory, while only one gave evidence of good memory, above 92%.

The question of sex was considered in these tests. Of the two pupils who scored 100%, one was a boy, the other a girl. In two of the classes the girls slightly excelled the boys, but in the third class the boys were ahead. Out of the whole 37 pupils, the girls averaged 84 $\frac{2}{3}$ % and the boys 84 $\frac{1}{3}$ % on the short test. On the long test the boys averaged 77 $\frac{1}{3}$ % and the girls 70 $\frac{1}{3}$ %.

The tests made in the intermediate classes were very similar, except that the stories were proportionately simpler and shorter. The results pointed to the same conclusions, save in one respect. The pupils of the intermediate classes showed a decided superiority in the long test over the short one. Inasmuch as the advanced pupils were as decidedly superior in the short test, the teachers were puzzled to account for the seeming contradiction. Later, however, it was discovered that the younger pupils did not "play fair" on the long test, but many of them compared notes and helped one another out.

Many of our pupils have a habit of spelling on their fingers as they study or memorize. To a limited extent, this was observed in its bearing on excellence of memory. No definite conclusion was reached, as both good and poor memorizers were among the "spellers."

The tests of memory thus outlined, as far as they go, point to the following general conclusions:

1. The pupils of the upper classes have excellent memories.
2. The best pupils, as a rule, have the best memories.
3. There is very little difference between the short and long tests in the case of the best pupils.
4. Poor pupils, as a rule, have poor memories.
5. There appears to be no marked difference between the sexes in the ability to memorize.
6. Spelling on the fingers while studying does not seem to have any bearing upon results.

The extent to which memorizing should be encouraged or tolerated in the classroom is one of the mooted points among teachers of the deaf. In considering it, we must make a sharp distinction between memorizing what one understands and the mere learning by rote, parrot-fashion. The latter cannot be too strongly condemned. It is not only senseless in itself, but injurious to the pupil, as the habit, if once formed, is certain to retard the development of understanding and independent thought. But memorizing understandingly is, I believe, one of the very best exercises for deaf children, not only for strengthening the mind, but as an aid in learning the English language. I do not think enough of it is done in the primary grades of our schools, or, for that matter, in any grades. Hearing children learn language mainly from the constant talk that goes on about them daily. If the language they hear chiefly is correct, they will come to use it correctly. If it is vulgar, ungrammatical, and slangy, they will learn and use it as such.

The great difficulty that deaf children have in learning language is that they lack this constant repetition to serve as a guide. Nothing can fully supply it. Here is where memorizing may be made to play an important part. If stories and incidents clothed in simple, idiomatic English are memorized by the deaf child every day, will not the turning over in the mind of certain phrases tend to fix them there, and when the deaf child wishes to express his own ideas, will he not have recourse to these familiar phrases as far as they are applicable to the thought of the moment? I have often thought that one reason why the deaf-blind learn a language so quickly and accurately is that, being shut out from so large a part of physical sensations, their minds are more introactive than those of ordinary people, and they treasure up and turn over and over in their minds the phrases and sentences they receive by the sense of touch, until they have made them their own.

THE PERCEPTIVE FACULTY.

(Meaning the power or habit of observing and learning for one's self.)

This topic was divided into two parts, and was discussed at the November and December meetings of the Teachers' Association.

1. November—

Cases illustrating the lack of this faculty.

Why is it lacking; is the defect physical or mental?

The teacher of one of the more advanced primary classes made several tests of the perceptive faculty of her pupils. She left an apple-core under the table in her schoolroom to see if the boy who swept the room daily would notice and remove it. He did not. The superintendent suggested that she leave a whole apple there.

She thought that laziness, rather than lack of perception, was at fault in this case. She tested her whole class in color perception, and found that one of the brightest pupils was lacking, while the dullest pupil was perfect in that test only. Another test was for the pupils to write the names of all objects that they knew to be round. In this test the results ranked from best to poorest according to the rank of the pupils in the class. The next test was recognizing and naming objects by the sense of touch alone, each pupil being blindfolded while undergoing the test. The results were more even than in other tests, but two of the dullest pupils failed utterly. She drew a line on the blackboard and told the pupils to draw one exactly the same length. Four of the class were perfect in this, and the dullest in the class drew a line two inches longer. Then the teacher gave the class a pictured postal card to look at, after which they wrote the names of such objects on it as they could remember. The brightest pupil named sixteen objects, while the dullest could name only four. This teacher thinks that perception is in direct ratio to intelligence as a rule, but that apparent lack of perception is, in some cases, due to defective eyesight, or to lack of comprehension of language.

The teacher of a primary oral class was inclined to attribute to deaf children unusually keen perception, rather than any lack of it, because they have to make one sense do the work of two. She had noticed that children from cities were often more alert than those from country districts. Some children notice all the details of a thing; others take note only of the more startling facts. This is brought out in a picture description. Some pupils fail to notice things because they are too lazy or indifferent to seek for information themselves. Some pupils are careless about copying, but the same ones are often keen to correct what they think to

be mistakes made by the teacher. This teacher has made various tests of the perception of pupils, and has seen others make such tests. She thinks that there is need of directing the habit of observation into the proper channels, rather than to discuss the lack of it. One day the teacher wore her back comb in the wrong place, another day had her apron awry, another day hid the clock, and another day had a description of the room written. No new facts were brought out. The pupils were usually observant, and asked her, "What is the matter with you?" and added remarks that were more truthful than flattering. Her conclusion is that lack of the perceptive faculty is attributable to both mental and physical deficiency, but chiefly mental.

The instructor in sloyd said that the presence of the perceptive faculty in a high degree was illustrated by the case of boys who make objects which they have seen elsewhere, and of which they have no model or picture at hand. He gave several instances of this. One day a gentleman visited the sloyd room, and remained some time watching the boys at work. When he had gone, the instructor asked the boys if they had noticed anything peculiar about the man. They volunteered various remarks, but only one boy in the class noticed that the man had but one hand. The instructor was not prepared to explain lack of perception. He said that defective eyesight or extreme nervousness and restlessness might account for it in some cases. But where this faculty is lacking to any great extent, some mental defect must be sought as the cause.

The instructor in drawing said that lack of perception among the pupils in his department related chiefly to misjudgment as to distance and size.

The teacher of the highest manual class said that lack of perception and observation among his pupils was

shown chiefly by inaccuracy in copying, and in misuse of proper names. He spoke of the inability of the pupils to give correctly the firm names of stores where they do business frequently, to give the names of common objects which they use or see used often, and similar instances. He thought that this lack was owing to the fact that the pupils are not sufficiently impressed with the importance of observing and learning for themselves.

2. December—

How can we best cultivate the perceptive faculty?

One of the primary teachers said that the first step in developing this faculty was to ask pupils to observe common things and tell what they see about them. She gave the results obtained with a piece of glass and a rubber band. When the pupils can express an idea in signs or gestures the teacher supplies the language that they want. The second step is to institute comparison of different objects. An interesting account of a comparison of milk and water was given, showing that a variety of new words and phrases can be introduced in such an exercise. The third step is to add uses of objects to the descriptions and comparisons, and also parts and qualities. The teacher thinks that since she introduced this work, her pupils have sharpened their perceptive faculties considerably.

The teacher of the primary oral class referred to above said one of the first things toward stimulating the perceptive faculty in pupils is for the teacher to be alert and enthusiastic. The description of pictures and objects is an aid in this matter. To this may be added the description of immediate surroundings. Judicious questioning is an excellent means of stimulating perception. Out-of-door walks with the class afford abundant opportunities for the children to notice things, and for the teacher to stimulate observation and inquiry. A series of actions

performed rapidly and clearly, and then written out in order, is a good stimulating exercise. So are old-fashioned guessing contests. One phase of the perceptive faculty is the "perception of mental conditions, of the fitness of things, of the moods of people, of tact in dealing with one's associates, of courtesies which most people think they have a right to expect." This form of perception is harder to cultivate than that of material things. "The Golden Rule of teaching is never to tell a child what he can find out for himself. We hope to make our pupils observant, inquisitive, and at last thoughtful."

The instructor in drawing said that the perceptive faculty, like all other human faculties, could be strengthened by exercise. He said that drawing was an excellent means of cultivating perception, and that art instruction was receiving more and more attention in all schools. Pupils can often express in drawing an idea for which they have not the requisite words or sentences. On the other hand, a pupil's comprehension of language may sometimes be tested by requiring him to illustrate it with a series of drawings. The teacher gave several illustrations of ways in which he endeavors to stimulate perception among the art pupils.

The teacher of the highest manual class said that deaf children get almost all their knowledge through sight perception. This is of two kinds: 1. Mechanical, where light from an object focuses on the retina and the sensation is transmitted to the brain, and the phenomenon ends there, the image or sensation disappearing as soon as the object is withdrawn. 2. Mental, where the mechanical effect is followed by a desire to know and understand. This latter is the kind that we should cultivate. Pupils see many things around them, use them, or know their uses, but do not know names of parts or processes. The teacher tested his class by talking about a grain of

wheat, and the various processes through which it passed from planting until bread-making. They knew the changes, but could name very few of them. It is so with many things. The pupils see objects around them, or in pictures, but do not know the names. It is important that teachers should try to arouse in the children a desire to know the names of things which they see, and guide this desire until it becomes a fixed habit, until the pupil is not content with seeing, but wants to know. This teacher suggested that it might be well for teachers to devote half an hour daily to an exercise especially designed to encourage the pupils to learn the names of common things at school or at home, and to question the teacher in regard to common things that they wished to know. In conclusion, he explained his method of correcting the news of the day, written by the pupils on the blackboard. The teacher and class read each item in turn. The pupils are expected to correct all errors, of whatever nature, in each item. They are also required to give evidence that they understand what each item means. This method is intended to stimulate perception, and to lead the pupils to think carefully about what they read and write.

III. THE LOGICAL FACULTY.

(Meaning the ability of pupils to think and reason for themselves, and to find the relation between cause and effect.)

This topic, like the one preceding, was divided into two parts, and discussed at the meetings in January and February.

1. January—

Cases illustrating the lack of this faculty.

Why is it lacking; is the defect physical or mental?

In order to guide the teachers in their study, the fol-

Following "suggestions" were prepared by the chairman of the committee:

1. Note instances giving evidence of thought and reasoning on the part of any pupil or pupils.
2. Note instances giving evidence of the absence of such thought and reasoning.
3. Note whether ability to reason is in direct ratio to scholarship.
4. Note whether ability to reason bears any relation to sex.
5. Apply some simple test of the reasoning power of your pupils, and note results.
6. Present your study of this subject concisely, in the form of facts, without accompanying theory.

The teacher of the youngest primary class said that every purposeful action shows reason on the part of the actor," and "every purposeless action is an evidence of lack of reason." The only test she could use with her pupils was in relation to the teaching of language. The best scholars gave the best results, and in every instance the girls seemed more able to grasp "linguistic generalization" than the boys.

The teacher of a second-year manual class gave several instances of reasoning by her pupils. One of them told her about a storm that damaged his father's house, and he said that God was to blame. The teacher said no, whereupon the pupil asked, "If it was not God, who was it?" One day the teacher mislaid her keys, and thought one of the pupils had hidden them. One of the boys found them on a bench near the waste-basket, and said that the teacher put them there herself. She asked him if he saw her do it. He said no, but he had seen her standing there, and no one else. Then she recollected that she had put them there while sharpening a lead-pencil. She tested the reasoning of the pupils in several

asked the class how many legs eight horses had, and the answers were varied, averaging one-fourth of a leg for each horse. The teacher found that in number work the boys, as a rule, gave better evidence of reasoning than the girls, while the girls seemed to reason better in language. Those who reason best ordinarily do the best work, with one exception—a girl who maintains an excellent standing by the help of a good memory.

The teacher of a third-year manual class gave various illustrations showing how her pupils reasoned. When a visitor comes into the room, the pupils carefully inspect, and later deduce conclusions, as to whether the visitor is pleasant, wise, rich, etc. They reason that a white face is an indication that the wearer will be "sick to-morrow." A large boy in her class writes poorly. She reproved him. One of the other boys told the teacher that the big boy worked hard, and his hands were rough, so that he could not write well. Lack of thought and reasoning in the class, the teacher thinks, is due rather to carelessness or abstraction than to inability. Reasoning power seems to be in direct ratio to scholarship. The girls in this class far exceed the boys in every mental power.

The teacher of an intermediate class said that when he gives the class a story to study, they get along all right as long as he asks them questions whose answers can be found verbatim in the text, but if he propounds a few questions that require a little reasoning, the pupils think that the teacher is taking an unfair advantage of them. This teacher does not think that the ability to reason bears much relation to sex, though the boys usually do the better work in arithmetic. He said: "Reasoning not only bears a direct ratio to scholarship,—reasoning is scholarship, or a large part of it." The teacher asked the class why the class names were in a certain order on the blackboard (alphabetically). Only three out of sixteen could tell, and these

Another time the teacher wrote a story of a boy who went skating one day, and a little girl who went picking flowers in the woods. Not one of the pupils noticed the incongruity.

One of the highest manual class asked his pupils for the name of the process of separating ashes from coals. Only one knew the correct word, "sifting," and he thought it was right because flour is sifted. That was the only correct answer in the bakery. The teacher often asks the class for the reasons of facts and statements that come up in the news from the bulletin boards, such as, why England and Germany blockaded Venezuela, why it is proposed to consolidate country schools, how counties can be divided, how Paul was chained to the Roman soldier, etc. As a rule, the pupils have to do some thinking, and present several false reasons before they hit on the correct one. One pupil thought that in the phrase "pining for liberty," the word "pining" had some relation to the word "pin." Another wrote "associate justice" on the board, and when asked to define it, he said that he did not know, but had copied it from the bulletin board. One of the girls stated that "snowslides blockaded rains on the N. P. R. R." Carelessness plays a considerable part in such errors, but lack of reasoning is chiefly at fault. The pupils do not think about what is before them. Lack of reasoning is often shown in arithmetic, where absurd answers are given. In this class, lack of reasoning is found chiefly among the inferior scholars, though exceptions have been noted. The girls make the better showing in reasoning, possibly because they lead in scholarship in the class. The teacher told an absurd story to the class as a bit of personal experience, but such was their faith in the teacher's veracity, or so lacking were they in reasoning, that not one detected the absurdities. Another test was the putting of the following questions among eight "straight" ones:

“Whom did the negro slaves of America set free?”

“What is the largest city west of the equator?”

All of the class took the first question seriously, and answered, Lincoln. Only one, a girl, noted the impossibility — in the second question.

2. February—

How can we best cultivate the logical faculty of our pupils?

The following request was made of several teachers:

“Please state briefly what methods you use yourself, or have read or heard of, for making pupils think and reason.”

The teacher of a primary oral class (third year) tries to stimulate the logical faculties of her pupils by asking questions that require some reasoning for their answers, by answering pupils' questions with suggestions that may lead the askers to find the answers themselves, and by using elliptical sentences. Here are a few questions such as she employs:

What kind of flowers grow in spring?

Why cannot these flowers grow in winter?

Why not in summer?

When do these flowers die and other flowers grow?

What flowers grow in summer?

Why cannot roses grow in winter?

Why not in spring?

These questions were followed by elliptical sentences:

Violets like —— and —— weather.

Roses like —— weather.

Roses and violets do not like——weather.

Violets grow in ——.

Roses grow in ——.

The teacher of a primary manual class (third year) thought that close questioning as to why, how, and under what circumstances things are done, was one way to promote reasoning. Showing pictures and talking about them is also a good means to the same end.

The teacher of an intermediate class said that the logical faculty can be strengthened by use, the same as any part of the physical body. But the difficulty is that we cannot force pupils to think. The only thing to be done is to try to find some means to *persuade* them to think. The best way to do this is to arouse the interest of the pupils in what they are studying or doing. The teacher of this class tries not to tire the pupils, and aims to have as much variety in lessons as possible. He sometimes introduces the unexpected, and it arouses the interest of the class. He makes use of illustrations and anecdotes while conducting a recitation. Funny stories are good stimulants sometimes. He tries to shape his questions so that some thought is required to answer them, and he encourages the pupils to ask questions. He tries to impress on them that they must not take things for granted, but make an effort to find out things for themselves.

The teacher of a more advanced intermediate class said that observation, memory, and the ability to distinguish and classify things contribute to the formation of the logical faculty. Therefore these qualities must be cultivated in the child. We should require our pupils to observe, compare, and try to understand.

The teacher of the highest manual class, who was chairman of the committee, closed the discussion of the subject with the following remarks:

“It is easier to pick flaws in any thing than to correct them; easier to diagnose a disease than to cure it; easier to adduce instances of lack of reasoning than to suggest a remedy.

“At our last meeting we furnished a number of instances showing deficiency of thought or reasoning on the part of our pupils. It has been a more difficult matter to provide a remedy for this lack.

“An old college professor used to tell his classes that

three words had civilized the world,—What? How? Why? Savage man, having something unfamiliar brought to his notice, asked, What is it? then, How is it? then, Why is it? and thus the savage became a thinking and reasoning being, and civilization was the result.

“In order to cultivate in our pupils the habit of thinking and reasoning for themselves, we must lead them to ask What? How? and Why?

“In some of the primary classes I think that simple exercises such as building words and sentences from letters, the forming of correct words from transposed words, simple puzzle pictures, and other devices of the same nature, will stimulate thought and reasoning on the part of the pupils. Even the mere supplying of missing words in sentences requires a process of reasoning in order to make the word fit in with the context.

“Exercises like those just specified make pupils think quickly, arouse interest and emulation, and will be useful in pulling the class out of the ruts of cut and dried work, if in no other way.

“What may be called reasoning by analogy can often be used to advantage. To illustrate this: A few days ago the word ‘misgovernment’ came up in one of the news items. The pupil who wrote it did not know just what it meant. Instead of telling her, I wrote the word ‘mistake’ on the board, and underscored the prefix of both words. She at once understood. On another occasion the word ‘immigration’ came up. I asked the class what the difference was between ‘immigration’ and ‘emigration.’ Some thought that they meant the same thing; others did not know. I wrote the words ‘import’ and ‘export’ on the blackboard, and most of the class saw the point and defined the first two words correctly. The other day the idiom, ‘gave rein to anger,’ appeared. None of the class could give a correct idea, until I asked what a rein was, and then

what giving rein to a horse would mean. Several grasped **t**he idea, and interpreted the idiom correctly.

“There is great demand for reasoning ability in arithmetic, especially in intricate problem work in advanced **c**lasses. One of the most difficult things I have experienced **i**s to bring pupils to find the whole from fractional parts, **t**hus—

“If three-fourths of a number are 36, what is the whole **n**umber?

“The difficulty seems to be that the pupils do not look **u**pon the ‘fourths’ correctly. They do not seem able to **s**ee that if three-fourths are 36, one-fourth must be 12, and **f**our-fourths, or the whole, 48. I have frequently had **r**ecourse to analogy to overcome this defect, employing the **f**ollowing form to go with the preceding:

“3 yards cost 36 cents.

“1 yard costs 12 cents.

“4 yards cost 48 cents.

“It is a fact, however, that only two weeks ago I used **t**hese identical illustrations in my class, and one of the pupils failed to see the analogy, even after I had pointed it out again and again, and I doubt whether the point is clear in his mind to-day.

“The items in Current History, lessons in United States History, and lessons in physiology in advanced classes afford opportunities for the cultivation of reasoning, if the teacher has his eyes open for them. There are times when a judicious **H**ow? or **W**hy? will draw forth some fact not given in the text. For instance, the other day, in a lesson in physiology, it was stated that loose mittens were warmer than tight gloves, though no reason was given. This I tried to draw out by questioning, but failed at first. Then I asked how it was that after a person had been in a cold bed for a while, he felt warm. This hint succeeded, and I drew forth the fact that the hand warmed the air in the mitten,

which kept the heat in, while, in the case of a tight glove, — there was no intervening air to be warmed.

“The most valuable aid to reasoning that I have found lately, has been in connection with the daily news from the bulletin boards. I have made it a point to question the pupils closely, to see if they understand what they write. If they do not, I try to make them understand by a series of searching questions. I also try to lose no opportunity to ask them the how and wherefore of things. I have noticed much improvement among some of the pupils.

“Another way to stimulate thinking and reasoning is in the matter of correcting written work. As a rule, I think we teachers do too much of the correcting. If instead of showing the pupil just where and what the mistake is, we should merely mark the line in which it occurs, leaving the pupil to find the error and rectify it, it would not only stimulate to thought but also to carefulness.

“But it is hard to prescribe any fixed methods for cultivating the reasoning powers. It must, to a large extent, be left to the ingenuity of the teacher, who is ready to take advantage of the daily lessons and incidents in the classroom to make the pupils think for themselves.”

JAMES L. SMITH,

Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minnesota.

THE MEETING OF THE CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS.

To the Members of the Conference:

The first Conference of Superintendents and Principals (sometimes erroneously referred to as the Sixth Convention) was held at Washington, D. C., May, 1868; the second at Flint, Michigan, August, 1872; the third at Philadelphia, July, 1876; the fourth at Northampton, Massachusetts, May, 1880; the fifth at Faribault, Minnesota, July, 1884; the sixth (Gallaudet Conference) at Jackson, Mississippi, April, 1888; the seventh at Colorado Springs, Colorado, August, 1892; and the eighth and last, after an interval of eight years, at Talladega, Alabama, June, 1900. At the meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf held at Flint in 1895, a special session of the members of the Conference present was held for the purpose of taking over the control and supervision of the *American Annals of the Deaf*, which theretofore had been under the supervision of the Convention, and for other special business brought before it. A special session of the members of the Conference present was also held at the meeting of the Convention of Instructors at Columbus in 1898, to receive the report of the Executive Committee, and elect a new Executive Committee.

At the first meeting in Washington no provision was made as to how often the Conference should meet, but at the Convention meeting in Indianapolis two years later it was agreed by the heads of schools present that meetings of the Conference should be held alternating with the Convention which met quadrennially. This custom prevailed until 1892, after which there was no regular meeting of the Conference until the Talladega meeting in 1900. At this last meeting, which, while not large, was enthusiastic, the consensus of opinion was that the meetings of the Conference should be held regularly

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also come up for consideration, and the proposed amendments to the constitution offered at the last meeting of the Association, and published in the *Association Review*, Vol. IV, page 410, will come up for action.*

The question of the advisability of establishing a summer school for the training of articulation teachers will also come up for discussion, and the Committee on the Summer School will report to the Association at large. The subject of future meetings of the Association will be considered in connection with the project for the summer school.

It has been decided to hold the Annual Meeting in Boston, in order to afford the members the opportunity of attending the meetings of the National Educational Association, to be held in that city July 6 to 10, 1903. In order to secure reduced railroad rates, members should be in Boston not later than the 7th of July. For information concerning the National Educational Association, address Mr. IRWIN SHEPARD, Secretary N. E. A., Winona, Minnesota.

The headquarters of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf will be established at the Copley Square Hotel, where our Local Committee

* These amendments both relate to Article V, Section 1, of the constitution.

The first amendment, submitted by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, proposes to increase the number of the Board of Directors from "nine" to "twenty-seven," and the number of directors to be elected at each annual meeting to serve for three years, from "three" to "seven"; that "no retiring director shall be eligible for re-election for the term next ensuing"; that "three of the seven directors thus elected at any annual meeting shall not be actively engaged in the work of teaching the deaf"; and that "in case of failure of the President to appoint" inspectors of election for directors, such inspectors shall be appointed "by the chairman of the meeting."

The other amendment, submitted by Mr. F. W. Booth, is the same as that submitted by Dr. Crouter, except that, instead of providing that "no retiring director shall be eligible for re-election for the term next ensuing," it provides that "not more than two of the retiring directors" shall be thus eligible.

have made arrangements for the accommodation of members at reasonable rates, provided those who intend to take advantage of this arrangement will write at once to the hotel for reservations.

Through the courtesy of the authorities of the Horace Mann School, the school building—which is conveniently located—will be thrown open during the morning hours as a meeting place for the members of the Association.

For further particulars concerning local arrangements, address Miss Sarah Fuller, Chairman of the Local Committee, Horace Mann School, Boston, Massachusetts.

Arrangements are being made for a banquet to be held in Boston on the evening of Friday, July 10 (the closing day of the National Educational Association). A reasonable charge will be made to members who desire to attend, and prominent members of the National Educational Association will be invited as guests of the Association.

On the following morning, Saturday, July 11, the Annual Business Meeting of the Association will be held as stated above. It has not been considered advisable on the present occasion to conduct a regularly organized Summer Meeting with sessions for the reading of papers, etc., as such proceedings would duplicate in some respects those of the Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association. The Association desires to co-operate in every way with the Department of Special Education, and not be in any sense a rival to it.

ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL,

President

Z. F. WESTERVELT,

Secretary.

THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE Forty-second Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in Boston, Massachusetts, July 6-10, 1903.

A rate of one fare for the round trip, plus the \$2.00 membership fee, has been granted by the railway lines of the New England Passenger Association, the Passenger Department of the Trunk Line Association, and the Central Passenger Association, and will doubtless be concurred in by all other railway associations of the United States and Canada. Tickets will be extended for return until September 1 on the usual deposit plan.

The "Department of Special Education, Relating to Children Demanding Special Means of Instruction" will hold two sessions—one on Wednesday morning, July 8, and the other on Friday morning, July 10. The Department will present four general topics, each of which is to be treated in two papers of twenty minutes each, and discussed in four papers of seven minutes each. General discussion will be invited after each topic has been treated as above indicated. The topics are:

1. The influence of the study of the unusual child upon the teaching of the usual.

2. Should the scope of the public school system be broadened to take in all children capable of education; and, if so, how should this be done?

3. How can the term "charitable" be justly applied to the education of any children?

4. What do teachers need to know about sense defects and impediments? Messages from specialists in medicine.

Strong speakers have been secured for each topic. Fully one-half of them are teachers and others not directly connected with our special work as we understand it, though all are vitally interested in it. Every question

will be discussed upon its merits; that is, without sentimentality. There will be no display of any matter not strictly within the purview of an educational meeting. I am confident that the questions to be treated will bring out a most interesting discussion, instructive to all.

Assurances come from every quarter that the Boston meeting will be the largest in the history of the Association. Here is a magnificent opportunity for bringing "persons engaged in the education of children requiring special means of instruction into contact and affiliation with teachers in general for the interchange of ideas for mutual benefit."

Application for entertainment in Boston, or for other local information, should be addressed to Mr. EDWARD R. WARREN, Secretary Local Executive Committee, Room 701, No. 60 State St., Boston, Massachusetts. For information regarding railroad rates, programmes, membership, and other Association interests, apply to Mr. IRWIN SHEPARD, General Secretary N. E. A., Winona, Minnesota.

EDWARD E. ALLEN,
President.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

FEHMERS, A. F. *Een Congres van Doofstommen* [A Congress of Deaf-Mutes]. Rotterdam: 1902. 8vo., pp. 19.

A sketch of the Congress of the Deaf held at Berlin last summer, of which a report was published in the *Annals* for November, 1902, pp. 464-468. The author is the Vice-Director of the Institution at Rotterdam, Netherlands. His views concerning the Congress agree for the most part with those expressed by the German teacher in the report above mentioned.

GALLAHER, JAMES E. *Representative Deaf Persons of the United States of America, containing Portraits and Character Sketches of Educated Deaf Persons (commonly called "Deaf-Mutes") who are engaged in various occupations.* Second Edition. Grinnell, Iowa: Elliott S. Waring. 1903. 8vo., pp. 264.

Though this publication is called the second edition of "Representative Deaf Persons," which was published

in 1898 (noticed in the *Annals*, vol. xliii, page 262), it is really a new book. Comparatively few of the sketches relate to the same persons, and those that do have been rewritten. In fact, the scope of the present work is wider; the first edition related to deaf persons "engaged in the higher pursuits of life" while the present includes those "engaged in various occupations." The number of persons of whom sketches are given is 201; the *Deaf-Mutes' Journal* tabulates them as follows:

Regular teachers	40	Carpenters and cabinet-makers	6
Principals	4	Farmers	10
Gymnastic instructors	2	Stockmen	2
Teacher of blind-deaf	1	Shoemakers	4
Industrial instructors	17	Proprietor electric light plant	1
Supervisors	3	Photographer	1
Ministers	8	Hotel keeper	1
Artists (not teachers)	8	Ice company manager	1
Printers	18	Harness-makers	3
Linotype operators	2	Abstracter of titles	1
Pattern-makers	2	Weather observer	1
Awning-maker	1	Lens-maker	1
Clerks	5	Expert machinists	4
Post-office clerks	5	Register of deeds	2
Editors of hearing papers	2	Merchants	3
Owner of barbershop	1	Upholsterers	3
Planter	1	Business men	2
Real estate broker	1	Piano-maker	1
Engravers	4	Cloth-cutter	1
Inspector electrical works	1	Miscellaneous	27
Postmaster	1		—
Deaconess	1	Total	201
Underwriter	1		

The list of course might have been greatly extended; 850 names were sent the editor by thirty-two agents and superintendents. As it is, it illustrates very well the diversity of occupations engaged in by the graduates of American Schools for the Deaf.

MORBIDI, G. *Il Primo Libro di Lettura e di Lingua pei Sordomuti. Seconda edizione migliorata* [First Book of Reading and Language for Deaf-Mutes. Second improved edition]. Siena: Tipografia Calasanziana. 1903. 12mo., pp. 36.

— *Il Secondo Libro di Lettura e di Lingua pei Sordomuti* [Second Book of Reading and Language for Deaf-Mutes]. Siena: Tipografia Calasanziana. 1903. 12mo., pp. 63.

Mr. Morbidi is a teacher in the Royal Pendola Institution at Siena, Italy. His First Book is intended for pupils in the second year of instruction; for the first year he favors oral instruction aided by writing, no book being placed in the hands of the pupils. The First Book begins with the names of objects which fall most frequently under the pupil's eye, and advances to familiar phrases and sentences relating to every-day life, questions and answers, commands, and the cardinal numerals. The Second Book contains stories, conversations, descriptions, verbs regular and irregular, etc., and introduces a considerable variety of simple language.

NORDIN, F. *Das Taubstummeneinrichtungswesen in Schweden* [The Education of the Deaf in Sweden]. Breslau: 1902. 8vo., pp. 22.

This sketch of the history of the education of the deaf in Sweden, by the Director of the Institution at Wenersborg, is a reprint from the work of Mr. Karth, which Mr. Heidsiek reviewed in the last number of the *Annals*. Mr. Nordin's history is clearly and concisely written, and gives an excellent view of the past and present state of the education of the deaf in Sweden. There are now eleven schools in that country, and their methods of instruction vary as much as those of American schools, though the proportion of pupils taught by the oral method is larger. Four schools (Lund, Wenersborg, Örebro, and a private school in Stockholm) follow the oral method exclusively; two (Wexiö and Gefle) the oral and written-language methods; two (Manilla and Hernösand) the oral, written-language, and manual methods; two (Karlskrona and Karlstad) the written-language method exclusively; and one (Hjorted) the manual method exclusively. The total number of pupils is 860, of whom 667, or 78 per cent., are

instructed by the oral method; 149, or 17 per cent., by the written-language method; and 44, or 5 per cent., by the manual method.

PARKER, W. D. *First Annual Report of the Inspector of Schools for the Deaf in Wisconsin, made to the State Superintendent, June 30, 1902. Madison, Wis.: 1902. 8vo., pp. 179.*

In May, 1901, the Legislature of Wisconsin passed a law authorizing the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to appoint a competent person who should act under his direction as inspector of the public day-schools for the deaf in the State and the school at Delavan, and should report annually on the condition and progress of the day-schools, and make such recommendations as he might deem proper for their improvement. On the first of July of the same year Mr. Parker was appointed to this office, and entered immediately upon the performance of his duties.

Mr. Parker had no previous acquaintance with the education of the deaf, but in other respects he was well qualified for the position. He was a teacher of long experience, and had served for several years as State Inspector of High Schools, President of the State Normal School, Member of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools, and Secretary of that Board. He came to the work without prejudice in favor of one method above another, and it is evident from this report that he performed his official duties intelligently and faithfully. It is much to be regretted that he should have retired from the position just as he was becoming well acquainted with the special characteristics of the education of the deaf.

Mr. Parker's thorough inspection of the day-schools of Wisconsin brought to light serious defects, irregularities, and even abuses in the system, which have crept in during the brief period of eighteen years that it has been in operation. In one city the deaf children were deprived of instruction in drawing and manual training, while more than \$400 received as "aid" of the day-school for the deaf was

transferred to the local school fund for other purposes; in another place such thrifty accumulation during six years was reported by the teacher to exceed a much larger sum, while the school was destitute of ordinary illustrative apparatus and of manual training; in some towns teachers were compelled to pay rent for schoolrooms, which were otherwise vacant, in one of the public school buildings; in others gross sums were reported as expended for the teachers' salary, whereas the teachers were obliged to surrender part of the sums thus reported for purposes that were legitimate enough but were disguised by the process; in others sums aggregating nearly \$4,000 were expended without authority of law for other objects than instruction, as clothing, food, transportation, and medicine. By a law passed in 1901 it was provided that money received in excess of expenditure should be returned to the State treasury, and Mr. Parker in his report proposes definite changes in the law to remedy the other irregularities.

Mr. Parker shows a disposition to give the day-schools of Wisconsin all the credit possible, but the general impression of them that one receives from his report is far from favorable. Aside from the defects above noted, which may perhaps be removed by the legislation proposed, he reports that one school is carried on in the second story of a commercial block over a grocery store; one on the first floor of an abandoned store; one on the second floor of an office building; one in a town hall during the warm season and in a public schoolroom during the winter. At each of three schools two teachers occupy one room. At four schools there are no playgrounds. Few of the schools are fitted with proper apparatus, and when urged to supply it the local authorities decline to incur the expense owing to the possibility of exceeding the amount of State aid.

The great advantage claimed for the day-school over the institution is that children can remain at home with their parents while receiving their education. It appears, however, that 38 of the 208 pupils enrolled in the Wisconsin day-

schools last year were non-resident; they boarded near the school during term time and returned to their own homes only during the three vacations of the year. Even for the children who have daily access to their homes, Mr. Parker says that "it is unwise to ignore many influences that surround them, when contrasted with the regimen of the State School, whose routine of exercise, abundance of food, skilled instruction under daily supervision, and continuity of influence during thirty-eight weeks of the year are noted."

Mr. Parker, however, reports the scholarship of the pupils taught under these unfavorable conditions as "equivalent to that of deaf children taught elsewhere."

Mr. Parker did not limit his inquiries concerning the education of the deaf to the schools of his own State. In order better to fit himself for his work he visited schools in other States and collected reports of schools, of conventions and conferences of instructors, professional periodicals, and other publications. He also by correspondence sought the views of teachers of the deaf, of expert medical and pedagogical authorities, and of adult deaf persons. The results of this investigation are embodied to some extent in his Report, while the Appendix contains a mass of valuable material consisting of extracts from reports, letters from the adult deaf, and opinions of individuals and organizations. The adult deaf who responded to his inquiries were educated by various methods, but their testimony is almost unanimously in favor of the Combined System.

REGNARD, A. *Contribution à l'Histoire de l'Enseignement des Sourds-Muets* [Contribution to the History of the Instruction of Deaf-Mutes]. Paris: 1902. 8vo., pp. 78.

Mr. Regnard informs his readers at the outset that he has not "the honor—so painful" of being an instructor of the deaf. He intimates, however, that he is prepared to speak with authority concerning the deaf and their education, for the reason that he is connected with the office of the Minister of the Interior, which in France has

charge of the national schools for the deaf, and during the past fifteen years has had the duty assigned him of inspecting the course of instruction and presiding over the "juries" of examination in the National Institution at Paris.

The conclusion to which Mr. Regnard's observations have led him are that the deaf are "inferior beings in all respects." He includes in this sweeping statement the educated deaf as well as the uneducated. He says that "it is only professional philanthropists who declare that deaf-mutes are men, like others;" that "having eyes, they see not;" that "they are incomplete and almost unsocial beings;" that "even when instructed to the highest possible degree, they do not read;" that "in twenty or thirty pages of the simplest book they will scarcely distinguish one idea;" that "contrary to Terence's man, all that is human remains foreign to them." Those statements are true, he says, not only of the congenitally deaf but also, though in a less degree, of those who become deaf at two or three years of age and upwards. "They do not read either." The cause of this supposed inferiority he finds partly in the theory that deafness is a form of degeneracy, but chiefly in the saying of Aristotle, which he accepts without any reservation, that "Reason is a creation of Speech." "The deaf not being able to acquire speech, not having benefited by the effects of those gymnastics so complicated as well as automatic which preside at the formation of language, lack in that very fact one of the conditions essential to the development of intelligence."

Is there then no remedy? At least, Mr. Regnard admits, there exists a palliative. Some of the deaf—from sixty-four to seventy-five per cent. is his estimate—may be taught to speak and read the lips, and thus, within the limitations above cited, be "restored to the society of civilized men." He would have their instructors devote all their efforts to the accomplishment of this one purpose; to attempt anything further in the way of mental development, to attach importance to writing, to endeavor to impart "the so-called truths of religion," he regards as the height of

folly. As for the sign language, he sees nothing in it except a means of restoring the deaf to the society of persons like themselves, or, failing in this, to that of Papuans, and he would rigidly exclude it under all its forms from schools for the deaf. Such are the narrow limits Mr. Regnard prescribes for the instruction—it cannot be called the education—of the more intelligent among the deaf.

How then about the less intelligent, the “good quarter” of the whole number, who, he says, are incapable of deriving any serious profit from oral instruction or, as he believes, from instruction of any kind? He admits that some of these—not all—after remaining seven or eight years in the institution, may be able on going out into the world to earn a few cents by mending shoes or making button-holes, but he regards such an apprenticeship as too costly. He would not have the state waste its money in trying to teach these children in schools but, after a trial of two years had shown their inaptitude for speech, he would segregate them in a sort of agricultural colony. There, he says, “you may give them oral instruction, or do whatever else you please with them, on the condition that you shall not encumber yourself with teachers, always very costly, and that you shall keep the general expenses at the lowest possible figure.”

Mr. Regnard calls his work a “Contribution to History,” but as an historian he seems no more admirable than as an observer and theorist.

He begins by saying that if our ancestors of Greece and Rome did not solve all the questions relating to the deaf, it was because “the Judeo-Christian invasion did not allow them the time for it.” Then, apparently in order further to glorify paganism at the expense of Christianity, he maintains that deaf-mutes, or at least some deaf-mutes, received instruction in ancient Rome. He bases his argument on a clause in the second provision of the Justinian Code (Liber VI, tit. XXII, Cap. X) relating to the testamentary rights of the deaf, which reads: “But where the same condition [deafness and dumbness] has been brought about

by calamity, not from birth, both voice and hearing having been lost by subsequent disease, then *in case such a one has received an education* we permit him to do all the acts which in the previous case we prohibited [making a will, granting freedom by manumission, etc.], on condition that he writes the acts with his own hand." Mr. Regnard takes the clause above printed in italics as positive proof that "in Rome under the Empire, and perhaps under the Republic, deaf-mutes received an education." In the absence of any other evidence in this direction, and in view of the restriction of the act to those who had not been born deaf, but had lost their voice and hearing by disease, it seems much more probable that the exceptional cases referred to were persons who had received an education before losing their hearing.

Coming down to the more recent times when—notwithstanding "the Semitic evil which under the form of Judeo-Christianity infected the world"—the world first recognized the claims of the deaf to education and citizenship, Mr. Regnard scoffs at John of Beverly, ignores Girolamo Cardano, disparages Wallis and Ponce, renders due justice to Bonet, Amman, and Heinicke, and does great injustice to the Abbé de l'Épée. This disinterested philanthropist, to whom the deaf, as a class, owe more than to any other man, he contemptuously calls "an interdicted priest," and characterizes as "arbitrary," "boastful," "presumptuous," "arrogant," "inflated with vanity and distilling jealousy through every pore;" he charges him with self-delusion if not falsehood in attributing to himself "his so-called discovery;" he says that "his teaching and influence retarded the instruction of the deaf for a century and a half," and that "he inaugurated the most remarkable victory that error and sophistry have ever won over truth." Finally, reaching the present day, Mr. Regnard extols the Milan resolutions, except the one expressing approval of the "intuitive" method, which he regards as "unscientific," "useless," and "ridiculous;" he laments the present tendency "in certain insti-

tutions" in France to jeopardize the oral method by permitting the use of the sign language, to give writing the ascendancy over speech, to return to "the antiquated vanities of Valade-Gabel," and to believe that the essential thing for the deaf-mute is to become well acquainted with the language of his country.

We do not regret that Mr. Regnard is not an instructor of the deaf, for one who puts so low an estimate upon their capacities and assigns such narrow limits for their education could scarcely be a successful teacher; but we do regret that he has not made a better use of such opportunities as he has had for observing them and learning the history of their instruction.

REUSCHERT, E. *Kleine Erzählungen für taubstumme Kinder. Zweites Heft* [Short Stories for Deaf Children. Part II]. Berlin: Dierig & Siemens. 1903. 8vo., pp. 48.

A previous collection of short stories by Mr. Reuschert was noticed in the *Annals*, vol. xlvii, page 477. The present collection contains seventy-two stories, well-selected, simple in language, but a little more difficult than those of the first collection. The stories are similar in character to those of Miss Hammond's "Story Readers," Mr. Teegarden's "Stories Old and New," and Mrs. Balis's "From Far and Near," but they have no illustrations.

PROCEEDINGS of the Semi-Centennial Celebration of the Wisconsin School for the Deaf, Delavan, Wisconsin, Wednesday, April 2, 1902. Delavan: 1902. 8vo., pp. 45.

The celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the Wisconsin School was briefly noticed in the *Annals* for May of last year, page 300. This report gives the proceedings in full, including the addresses of President Gallaudet and others, both at the formal exercises of the day and the banquet of the evening, and contains several pictures illustrating important events in the history of the School.

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS (published in 1902): Alabama, Buenos Aires (School for Girls), Clarke, Detroit, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, Perkins, Rotterdam (Netherlands), St. John's (Boston Spa, England), South Australia, South Dakota, West Virginia, Western Pennsylvania; (published in 1903) Bristol (England), Margate (England).

REPORT of the South Australian Adult Mission and Angus Home, 1902.

E. A. F.

HELEN KELLER. *The Story of My Life.* New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 12mo., pp. 431. Price, \$1.50.

The volume before us is composed of three distinct parts: Miss Keller's autobiographical narrative, substantially as it appeared in a series of articles printed during the year 1901-1902 in the *Ladies' Home Journal*; a selection from her correspondence, beginning with a letter written three months and a half (a memorable Hundred Days) after the first word had been spelled into her hand, and carrying us along into her college life; and an account of her education, in letters from her teacher to a friend and in some chapters of comment by Mr. John Albert Macy.

Helen Keller's life story may well begin with the emphatic expression which the old French aristocrats confined to members of their own order—she “was born.” If not members of a titled class, her ancestors were of “that kinglier breed” which transmits the nobility of heart and of intellect. Her father's family was of Swiss origin, and one of her ancestors, Heinrich Keller, was, by a singular coincidence, the first instructor of the deaf in Switzerland and the author of a book on the subject of their education.*

Through different lines she draws her blood from Governor Spottswood and the Lees of Virginia, and from the Adamses and Everetts of Massachusetts—a lineage in which we may easily trace back, through this strain or

* “*Versuch über die beste Lehrart Taubstumme zu unterrichten*” [Essay upon the Best Manner of Instructing Deaf-Mutes]. Zurich: 1786. (Noticed in the *Annals*, vol. xxvii, p. 98.)

that, to some distinguished ancestor, any beautiful or noble trait which she may manifest.

The leading facts in her life are too well known, certainly to the readers of the *Annals*, to allow their repetition here. A bright and happy infancy, the double calamity of deafness and blindness coming on as a result of illness at the age of nineteen months, five years of isolation, the coming into her life at the age of seven of her teacher and friend, Miss Sullivan, her incredibly rapid growth of mind, her acquisition of speech, her successful course in a college of the highest rank, the unfolding of a character of surpassing strength, yet of such sweetness that the strength might easily be overlooked—all this is in our mind at once when we hear the name of Helen Keller.

It is because "The Story of My Life" goes far towards showing how Miss Keller became what she is that it possesses such absorbing interest and so unique a value.

Perhaps it is well at the outset to say what, in our opinion, she really is.

One writer calls her "the most marvellous genius of the century"; another holds that she "has been dowered with some mysterious sense which makes up to her, tenfold, the loss of sight and hearing." On the other hand, the inevitable detractor has been heard to intimate that hers is about an average mind, except for a wonderful power of memory and of imitation.

Her memory, for language especially, is certainly wonderful. The episode of "The Frost King," of which a full history, from all points of view, is given in this volume, is sufficient proof of this. We remember hearing her repeat, without an instant's hesitation and without an error, a paragraph from Emerson, of some length and charged with thought, which had been communicated to her in conversation some days before. Not one person in a thousand could commit the passage to memory, even for the moment, without some little study. In other directions her memory seems to be equally ready and tenacious. Tactile sensations, as is usual with the

blin**d**, are nicely discriminated and are never forgotten. Thus she has recognized by the mere grasp of the hand, after the interval of two or three years, a person whom she **had** met but once.

Quite distinct from her wonderful memory for language is **her** fine language sense, that indefinable something, **high**er and finer than mere memory, comprehension, appreciation, or command of words—that faculty which contains the possibility of style, and which lies just beyond the power of the best teaching to impart and of the most diligent study to acquire. Perhaps it is an intimate sympathy with words, such as an inspired gardener like Luther Burbank may have with his flowers, such as the Hubers had with their bees, or Rarey with horses.

Miss Keller undoubtedly has a style, and one which, if we may judge, will yet become even more delicate and effective an expression of herself than it is at present. She evidently did not get it from her teacher, for, as Mr. Macy points out, Miss Sullivan's manner of expression, while lacking nothing in clearness, correctness, and elegance, is as unlike as possible to the imaginative, poetic form in which Miss Keller's thoughts frame themselves.

Nor is her style an imitation of any one striking writer—what Dr. Holmes hit off in one of his inimitable phrases as “the Macaulay flowers of literature.” Her comparison of herself just before her teacher came to her (p. 21) to a steamer feeling her way through a fog may almost be classed with Burke's famous passage comparing the Coalition to the confluence of the Rhone and the Saône, or to Macaulay's still more effective simile of Bassanio and the three caskets as applied to the adherents of the first and second Charles and the Puritans. Yet the passage is not imitated from Macaulay nor from Burke nor from any one else; it is purely Kellerian.

Miss Keller is more than a stylist; she is a thinker. Even as a child, Miss Sullivan's memoranda show that no sooner had she got hold of a new fact than her mind was off afield in search of kindred truths already learned

with which to put it into relation. Her curiosity differed from that with which we are all familiar in other children, in that while the ordinary childish mind is sated with a surface glance at a new object, she demanded the fullest information in regard to everything. Her judgments are often penetrating and always original and interesting.

Her moral characteristics, as shown unconsciously by her own narrative, and as remarked upon by her editor, count for much in her intellectual success. Dauntless courage, physical as well as intellectual, sincerity of an unusual depth, and especially a sympathy "like the wideness of the sea," have led to the broadening of her experiences, and have enabled her to interpret them with a clearness denied to those, however keen in intellect, who have not learned how to love others as themselves. Not only is it true that

"He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small."

It is equally true that he learneth best.

There has been a general impression that Miss Keller is of rather fragile constitution. Her organization is so fine—"one would have said her very body thought"—the movements of her hands, like butterflies on the wing, are so suggestive of nervousness, her complexion is so delicate, that the impression was natural. But, as we learn from the book and as her experiences prove, she is a young woman of more than average muscular strength and with an altogether unusual force of will and reserve power of endurance. Like Mary Stuart, who longed to be a man that she might know what life it was to wear a coat of steel and to sleep all night on the causey, she plunged with zest into the dashing breakers on the Atlantic coast and into the biting air of a New England snowstorm; she enjoyed a tearing gallop on her pony or a ramble which might take her over rocky hills or through a tangled swamp.

Certainly an incredible power of acquisition, a quick and comprehensive grasp of facts and faculty of com-

arison and correlation, sympathetic insight into mental and spiritual conditions, a sincerity that pierces to the dividing asunder of the joints and marrow, untiring energy of mind and body, and a fine mastery of the power of expression—all brought to their highest perfection by the best culture which our place and time can give—make up an array of gifts which may fit one for eminent service as a student, as a writer, or in any one of many channels. But it is possible to exaggerate even such gifts as these.

The hypothetical "sixth sense" of the blind-deaf Mr. Macy dismisses with the sound observation, as it seems to us, that Helen Keller can have no sense peculiar to her by virtue of her deprivation of other senses, although, as we think he means to intimate, there may be in us all undeveloped possibilities of sensitiveness to external impressions. The exquisite sense of touch developed, as we all know, in the blind, accounts for much. The degree to which the sense of smell may be developed is less generally known, but is alluded to by Mr. Macy. Many very interesting facts bearing on this point may be found in a letter of Mr. William Wade, published in the *Alabama Messenger* of February 26, 1903. It seems to be true that Miss Keller not only gets by handling an object like a statue, a flower, a person's face, as accurate and vivid a notion of form as we derive from looking at it, and a more delicate appreciation of its texture, but she feels the same emotions of admiration, of awe, or of repulsion that affect us. The Moses of Michaelangelo, the Niobe group, a Barye lion, a spray of apple-blossoms, a granite boulder, mean just the same to her as they mean to any person of sensitiveness and culture.

Are not these, to her, symbols, a sort of æsthetic logarithms, by which she can in some way—not exactly in our way, but more deeply and truly than most of us can—understand and enjoy the beauty and grandeur of the mountains, the clouds, and all the rest which can make no direct appeal to her sense? One is struck with the

natural, unconscious way in which she speaks of having "seen" and "heard" everything, wherever she has been. The note rings true; it is not affectation nor imitation nor unconscious repetition; it is a genuine expression of feeling.

Again, St. John the Divine saw on Patmos the holy city, new Jerusalem, coming down from God out of heaven, and he described its jasper walls, its pearly gates, and streets of gold. Within, he saw the river of water of life, clear as crystal, proceeding out of the throne of God and of the Lamb, and the tree of life whose leaves were for the healing of the nations. How many thousands of readers have had their conceptions of perfect spiritual peace and love and beauty heightened by these purely material images! Conversely, may not a soul filled with the highest conceptions of intellectual and spiritual beauty be able through these images to form a far truer concept of the real grandeur of a mountain than is possible to one seeing it by the eye of flesh alone?

That Miss Keller is what she is, rather than any one of the many other possible Helen Kellers, is due more to her teacher, Miss Sullivan, than to all other influences together. Is it then true, as has been said, that "Miss Sullivan's discoveries have made a revolution in the theory of education"?

To us it seems that Miss Sullivan's system contains no principle that is absolutely new. She has made a very striking demonstration of the truth that a bright child, trained from the start by a teacher with sufficient knowledge, skill, and devotion, who makes that child's development the principal object in life, may make in seven or eight years attainments equal to what other persons of like abilities carry away from a course of education at school and college carried on to the age of twenty.

But the case of John Stuart Mill is perhaps even more striking. True, he had all the normal senses, but, on the other hand, the senior Mill, though doubtless a more profound scholar, was by no means as wise an educator

as Miss Sullivan; he was a taskmaster rather than a guide and companion, and he had comparatively little time to give to his pupil. Moreover, it is doubtful whether J. S. Mill was equal to Helen Keller in that kind of ability which is required in the process of what we ordinarily call "getting an education."

Miss Sullivan's "natural method" of language teaching will be found most clearly and entertainingly set forth by the great Erasmus in his plan of teaching Latin, and his "Colloquies," intended for language lessons, will furnish any of us who care to read them many useful pedagogic hints as well as much delicate humor. Comenius, later, formulated more carefully the same method in substance. Froebel taught, and thousands of kind and patient women have practised, Miss Sullivan's art of entering into the child's life and becoming a co-laborer with him rather than his taskmaster. That plan of education which would make the child the centre of the course of study, and would draw out his faculties in response to the calls of surrounding objects, has its exponents in a recognized school of pedagogics.

All this is not to depreciate Miss Sullivan's extraordinary merits as a teacher. The Confederate general, Forrest, stated the whole art of war in a sentence: "Find out where you want to git; then git there the fustest with the mostest men." Yet the commander who never fails to divine the vital strategic point, and to occupy it in adequate force before the enemy can do so, will always be considered a great general.

Miss Sullivan's letters describing Helen's progress and her own methods are full of pregnant remarks, given rather as *obiter dicta* than as formal decisions, but putting in a nutshell, and in language "understanded of the people," what psychologists and pedagogical authorities expand into bulky volumes of technical phraseology. "From the beginning I have made it a practice to answer all Helen's questions to the best of my ability in a way intelligible to her and at the same time truthfully." "Too

much explanation directs the child's attention to words and sentences so that he fails to get the thought as a whole." "It is not the word, but the capacity to experience, that counts in the child's education." "I find it much easier to teach her things at odd moments than at set times."

Her prompt decision and her unyielding determination to secure perfect obedience from the outset, more perhaps than any other part of the work, determined that the little Helen's splendid courage and will power should work to form her into a perfect woman, nobly planned, rather than—as was quite possible—into a virago.

Her fundamental truthfulness, a far deeper quality than what we ordinarily mean by the term, is indicated in many ways, notably in her attitude towards her pupil in the face of the deepest facts of life. The delicacy, the feeling of responsibility, the utter sincerity with which she faced these questions, command our admiration and reverence.

To us no part of Miss Keller's education is more interesting or more significant than her religious development and her contact with religious dogma and with the Bible. Her experience in this line was most unusual, perhaps quite unique.

Her parents seem to have been church members—Presbyterians, as we infer—yet Helen was allowed to reach a stage of mental development at which her own "obstinate questionings of things invisible" demanded knowledge of a Great First Cause before she was told of a Power behind the order of Nature. Even then her teacher, feeling, no doubt, "such knowledge is too wonderful for me," made no attempt to convey the idea of anything more than an all-pervading, all-sustaining energy.

An attempt, about this time, on the part of a well-meaning relative, to impart the conventional formulas as to the Divine nature was received by the little girl with amused incredulity. Her first introduction to the Bible came at a time when the old Greek myths were already

familiar to her, and she records that at first she found the stories of the Old Testament decidedly lacking in interest by comparison. It is not strange that to a child the joyous Hellenic spirit should have more attraction than the somewhat sombre genius of the Semitic races.

Under the guidance of her teacher her marvellous capacity for affection, her devotion to right, and her reverence for everything great and good were developing a deeply religious nature. An exclamation of hers at this period under very deep feeling: "*I love the beautiful truth!*" is a perfect illustration of Matthew Arnold's definition of religion as "morality touched with emotion."

During her stay in Boston she formed a strong friendship for Phillips Brooks, and when, puzzled by the clashing of so many hostile creeds, she turned to him for light, his faith and sympathy and wisdom taught her to look up to God as the source of that love which to Helen was indeed the very bond of peace and of all virtues.

Many of us elders have seen with regret the apparent loosening of the hold of the Bible—the only really great book which has ever entered thoroughly into the life of our English race—on the youth of to-day. We have feared that, with the inevitable decay of that unreasoning awe with which its every word was charged to our ancestors, no feeling of its literary value or of its real spiritual fineness would avail to keep it truly a living force as it has been. In view of Helen Keller's relations to the Bible, her present feeling in regard to it is instructive. "But how shall I speak of the glories I have since discovered in the Bible? For years I have read it with an ever-broadening sense of joy and inspiration, and I love it as I love no other book. Still, there is much in the Bible against which every instinct of my being rebels, so much so that I regret the necessity which has compelled me to read it through from beginning to end." This is reassuring. It indicates that the Bible needs no bolstering up by a creed outworn; that it speaks, as all truly great works do, direct to the heart, and that its message will still

find its response. The testimony is all the more convincing in favor of the Bible because of the *caveat* entered against blind Bibliolatry. Miss Keller could never accept the information given with unconscious sarcasm by some Defender of the Faith, that the singing of the *Gloria Patri* at the end of a Psalm "imparts a distinctively Christian character" to such petitions as that our feet may be washed in the blood of our enemies, and that the tongue of our dogs may be red through the same. But no soul could thrill more deeply than hers in answer to the prophet's call "to do justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God."

The "Story of My Life" leaves the author at the age of twenty-two, half way through her college course. Surely few lives, at that point, have so much of high attempt—and of successful surmounting of obstacles to record—Will the strong years of life, on which she is yet to enter—correspond in achievement to the promise of the beginning? None can tell, and, after all, what is literary or scholarly success compared with that culture of soul and intellect—which this book reveals?

" 'Tis not the grapes of Canaan that repay,
But the high faith that failed not by the way."

WESTON JENKINS.

Instructor in the Alabama School, Talladega, Alabama.

There is a growing increase of attractive books for children, but no more attractive book for small folk has been published than "The Standard Primer," by Anne Heygate-Hall, Principal of the School of Practice in the Philadelphia Normal School, and Martin G. Brumbaugh, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Pennsylvania, published by the Christopher Sower Co., of Philadelphia.

The Preface has for its headlines "Lessons for Reading, Lessons for Writing, Pictures for Tales, and Verses to Learn," and it states that the book is "intended to supply the need for an initial book in language mastery."

It begins with the names of common objects in script and leads up to the printed form in "talking exercises" and classics of the Miss Muffet type; these are brought nearer the child's grasp by a liberality and daintiness of illustration which enlist the delighted interest of the child.

The illustrations by Miss Maria L. Kirk deserve more than passing mention, as they appeal to the child mind, reaching his near interests, and eliciting original remarks or personal reminiscences which, taken as a language stimulant alone, are of sufficient educative value to commend the book to a progressive teacher of the deaf.

Its enthusiastic reception by children between the ages of six and eight years, and the eager demand of each for a book of his own, lead me to recommend "The Standard Primer" in the highest terms to the profession as a book of unusual attractiveness and educative value for little deaf children.

ELIZABETH R. TAYLOR,
Principal of the Maine School, Portland, Maine.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Ashland Day-School.—Miss Jessie B. Allen, formerly Principal of this School, died in February last, aged twenty-nine. The immediate cause of her death was an enlargement of the heart, but there had been other complications during her illness of three months. Miss Allen was trained in the Wisconsin State School at Delavan and the McCowen School at Chicago, and taught in the Delavan, Eau Claire, and Ashland schools. "Possessed of bright endowment of mind, she added to that winsome attributes of heart and sterling qualities of character which endeared her to all."

Illinois Institution.—Dr. Joseph Claybaugh Gordon, Superintendent of this Institution for the past six years, died after an operation for appendicitis, April 12, 1903.

aged sixty-one. He had been ill only three days. The funeral was at the Institution April 15; among those present were Mr. Henry C. Hammond, Superintendent of the Kansas School, Dr. Noble B. McKee, Superintendent of the Missouri School, and Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, President of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. The interment was at Monmouth, Illinois.

Dr. Gordon was born at Piqua, Ohio, March 9, 1842; he was graduated at Monmouth College, Illinois, in 1868, and in 1869 he became a teacher in the Indiana Institution. In 1873 he was appointed Professor of Mathematics and Chemistry in Gallaudet College, a position which he held for twenty-four years, resigning it in 1897 to accept the superintendency of the Illinois Institution. He received the honorary degree of Ph. D. from Monmouth College in 1893.

Dr. Gordon was thoroughly acquainted with all matters relating to the history, theory, and practice of the education of the deaf, but he took especial interest in the teaching of speech. In 1869 he organized the Oral Department of the Indiana Institution; from 1891 to 1895 he had charge of the Department of Articulation and the Normal Department in Gallaudet College; and when he became Superintendent of the Illinois Institution he greatly extended the scope of oral teaching in that school and constantly brought a larger and larger proportion of the pupils under its influence. Formerly an enthusiastic advocate of the sign-language as a means of mental development and an aid to instruction, during later years he came to regard it as unnecessary and pernicious in the schoolroom, and in the Illinois Institution he endeavored as far as possible to suppress its use in the manual-alphabet classes as well as the oral classes. He retained it, however, in chapel services, public lectures, etc., and deemed it "neither practicable nor expedient to prohibit any decorous form of communication between pupils outside of the schoolroom."

Dr. Gordon was always ready to use his pen and voice



James W. Taylor.
J. W. Taylor.

in behalf of the work to which he devoted his life. He edited "Education of Deaf Children" (Volta Bureau, 1892), and was the author of "Practical Hints to Parents of Young Deaf Children concerning Preliminary Home Training" (Washington, 1886), "The American Manual Alphabet" (Washington, 1886), "Deaf-Mutes in the United States" (London, 1886), and "Notes and Observations upon the Education of the Deaf" (Volta Bureau, 1892). He wrote many noteworthy articles for the *Annals*, and three comprehensive reports as Superintendent of the Illinois Institution. He took an active part in several of the Conventions of American Instructors of the Deaf and in all the summer meetings of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. While connected with Gallaudet College he read able papers relating to the deaf before the National Educational Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the American Otological Association, and after going to Illinois he delivered numerous addresses before educational and other associations in that State.

The high esteem in which Dr. Gordon was held by his associates in the profession is shown by the positions of honor and service to which they elected him. He was twice made Chairman of the Oral Section of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, was the first President of the Department of Special Education in the National Educational Association, and from 1901 until his death was a Director of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.

In 1878 Dr. Gordon was married to Anna Sibyl Wadsworth, who, with three children, survives him. The children are George, who was graduated with honors from Princeton and is now studying law at Harvard; Grace, a senior at Smith College; and Sibyl, a schoolgirl. He was devoted to his family, and his home life was congenial and happy.

Early in life Dr. Gordon became a member of the Presbyterian Church, of which his father was a minister. While

living in Indianapolis and in Washington he was a teacher in the Sunday-school, and was always active in the work of the church. His religious views were broad and his religious feeling was deep.

Dr. Gordon never enjoyed robust health, but while he lived in Washington he was seldom so ill as to interfere with the regular performance of his duties, and the delicate state of his health was known only to a few intimate friends. The change from the quiet life of a college professor to the arduous responsibilities and anxieties of the head of a great institution at the age of fifty-five was a serious strain, and during the first year in Illinois he broke down under it. Although he was able after a short rest to return to his post and worked on with never flagging energy until the end, he found the burden heavy and the stress severe.

Dr. Gordon had genial manners and an attractive personality, the fruit of an amiable disposition. He made friends readily, and some of his friendships were strong and lasting. He was a clear thinker, a ready writer, a forcible speaker, a successful teacher, an efficient superintendent, a public-spirited citizen, a warm-hearted friend, a true disciple of the Master, always ready to deny himself for the sake of others. His death leaves a vacant place in the profession and in the community that cannot easily be filled.

Mr. Charles P. Gillett, a son of Dr. Philip G. Gillett, the former Superintendent, and a teacher in the Institution, has been appointed Acting Superintendent.

Mr. W. H. Clifford has resigned the position of instructor in printing and editor of the *New Era* on account of ill health. Mr. William I. Tilton has been appointed editor of the *New Era* and Mr. M. H. Davis instructor in printing.

Mr. Marquis L. Brock, an instructor in this Institution from 1858 to 1869 and from 1875 to 1893, died February 14, 1903, aged sixty-eight. During the interval from 1869 to 1875 he was for a short time principal of the Arkansas Institute and afterwards a teacher in the Pennsylvania

Institution. He was a classmate of Dr. P. G. Gillett at Asbury College, now De Pauw University, and his years of service in the Illinois Institution, with the exception of the interval above mentioned, were nearly the same as Dr. Gillett's. The two men were devoted friends, and when Dr. Gillett was compelled by political influences to resign the superintendency, Mr. Brock no longer desired to remain. For many years he was practically Vice-Superintendent of the Institution, always taking Dr. Gillett's place in his absence. He had a pleasant disposition, showed ability as a teacher and writer, and was conscientious in the discharge of every duty. He was the author of several articles in the *Annals*, one of which, "A Better Method of Teaching Beginners," published in 1868, had much influence in bringing about a needed reform in the methods of language teaching.

Indiana Institution.—The legislature has passed a bill providing for the sale of the present site of the Institution, the purchase of a new site of not less than eighty acres of land conveniently near to Indianapolis, and the construction of suitable buildings at an expense not to exceed \$250,000. It is expected that the work will be completed within two years.

A number of charges against Mr. Johnson's administration of the Institution, including misappropriation of funds, neglect of duty, inefficiency, the abuse and discharge of employees, the payment of salaries to undeserving officers and teachers, the unkind treatment of pupils, and other charges of minor importance, were investigated last February by the Board of State Charities. Some of the charges were made in the newspapers over the fictitious signature of "Indiana Deaf Association," and others were formally preferred by a discharged employee. The investigation was public and was fully reported in the daily newspapers. It continued through eight sessions, covering three days and two nights. The widest possible latitude was given to the investigation, and the complainant as well as the Board of Charities was assisted by the

Deputy Attorney-General of the State. The result was the complete vindication of Mr. Johnson's administration. The Board say in their report to the Governor: "In every instance the charges were not proven or were disproven. The charges of Mr. Clinton [the discharged employee] were not sustained by his own witnesses. . . . As a result of this investigation we feel it is proper to say that we have a higher regard for Superintendent Richard O. Johnson than ever before."

London (England) Board Schools.—There are now sixteen day-schools under the direction of the London School Board, and two residential schools: one at Anerly for boys of thirteen years of age and upwards, and one at Homerton for backward children. At the Anerly School the trades of bootmaking, tailoring, carpentry, and metal-work are taught. The Board contemplates the establishment of a similar residential school for girls, in which laundry-work, dressmaking, and millinery shall be taught.

Margate (England) Institution.—The connection with the building in the Old Kent Road has been discontinued, the building has been sold, and in future all the pupils will be housed at Margate. Plans for extensive additions to the present buildings have been prepared, giving accommodation to 320 children. The name of the Institution has been changed to "Royal Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb Poor, Margate."

Milwaukee Day-School.—The new building of the School, on the corner of Seventh and Prairie streets, was dedicated with interesting exercises April 8 and 9, 1903. Addresses were delivered by Mr. Aug. F. Mueller, Chairman of the Committee on the School and President of the Parents' Association; Mr. H. O. R. Siefert, city Superintendent of Schools; Hon. R. C. Spencer, representing the Phonological Institute; Mr. C. J. Cary, State Superintendent of Public Instruction; Miss Anna E. Schaffer, Inspector of Wisconsin Schools for the Deaf; Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, to whose efforts the establishment of the State system of day-schools for the deaf is largely due; Miss Frances

Wettstein, Principal of the School, and others. An exhibition was also given of the work of the School, and there was a reception and a banquet, at which Dr. Bell was the guest of honor. In his address Dr. Bell suggested that the name of the School be changed to "Paul Binner School," thus honoring a man who did much to advance the work and suppressing the words "for the Deaf." The newspapers say that this suggestion is almost certain to be adopted by the Milwaukee School Board.

Montana School.—The official title of the institution has been changed from "Asylum" to "School."

Ohio Institution.—Mr. Plumb M. Park, a valued teacher in this Institution from 1838 to 1840 and from 1844 to 1883, an entire period of forty-one years, died February 21, 1903, aged eighty-seven. Mr. Park became deaf in infancy and was the sixth pupil admitted to the Institution soon after its opening in 1829. Since 1883 he has resided in Santa Barbara, California, with his only son, James M. Park, who was also for a time a teacher in the Institution. His wife and son are still living.

Pennsylvania Institution.—The teaching of sloyd was discontinued at the close of the last term, as it was believed that the time of the pupils might be more profitably employed in other forms of instruction.

Rotterdam (Netherlands) Institution.—Mr. I. C. Bickers, Director of this Institution and a prominent instructor of the deaf, died March 31, 1903, aged sixty-nine. Mr. Bickers was the author of "Peter Montans's Art of Speech," published in the *Annals*, vol. xxxii, pp. 168-176.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Exhibits at Saint Louis.—In the last number of the *Annals* (pp. 201–205) was published a circular concerning the exhibits of Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind at the Universal Exposition to be held in Saint Louis in 1904. as adopted by the committees representing the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and the American Association of Instructors of the Blind. A revised edition of this circular has been issued, signed by Mr. Howard J. Rogers, Chief of the Department of Education, and Mr. Alvin E. Pope, Superintendent of Group Seven of that Department, and approved by Mr. Frederick J. F. Skiff, Director of Exhibits. It contains the following additional statements:

These schools are provided for in the official classification of the Exposition under Group 7, Department of Education, Classes 19 and 20, respectively.

It is the policy of the Committees that all methods of instruction shall be fairly represented.

The Exposition Company assumes no risk or responsibility for the health or safety of the pupils, and no expense except to furnish a building to be used as a dormitory.

Visitors will be convinced of the intellectual capacity of the deaf and the blind, and their ability of self-support by this open demonstration, and it is to be hoped the operation of these schools will permanently impress upon the public mind the idea that the training of the deaf and the blind is purely educational and in no sense a matter of charity on the part of the State.

Any school or institution not desiring to enter into this collective exhibit, and to share the benefits of this plan, is at liberty to make an independent application for space to the Chief of the Department of Education.

The sentence beginning "Any State may send two classes," is modified by inserting after the word "State" the words "or institution," so that the sentence now reads: "Any State or institution may send two classes, one of the

deaf and the other of the blind, for a period of one or two months."

The Acousticon.—The New York daily papers of March 14, 1903, contain glowing accounts of tests of the "Acousticon," an invention of Mr. Miller Reese Hutchison's, made upon pupils of the New York Institution. The reports of the newspapers are evidently so exaggerated as to deprive them of scientific value, but we gather from them that the results of the Acousticon are not essentially different from those of Mr. Hutchison's former inventions, the Akoulalion and the Akouphone, which some time ago passed out of his hands. Mr. Carrier, Principal of the New York Institution, says in the *Association Review* for March, 1903, that the difference from the construction of the former instruments "consists in portability and adjustability, by which I mean that the size of the instruction outfit has been reduced from the cabinet or case to a hand size, and that the corresponding instrument to the 'Akouphone' has been made adjustable to various degrees of carrying power, so that it will be to the ear what the various styles of lenses are to the eye. Other than that, there is no difference between it and the first instruments of Mr. Hutchison." Mr. Carrier adds that Mr. Hutchison "has succeeded in perfecting a battery which is so small as to make it easy to be carried; the battery, of course, being the foundation upon which the effectiveness of the instrument rests."

The Standard of School Attainment.—In reply to the criticism of the *Annals* of last September (vol. xlvii, p. 379), upon the low standard of attainment advocated for schools for the deaf by Mr. G. Ferreri in the revised edition of his "*Il Sordomuto e la sua Educazione*," Mr. Ferreri explains in *Rassegna* for February, 1903, that he did not mean to assert that all the deaf without exception are inferior in mental capacity to hearing persons, nor to oppose under all circumstances provision for the higher education

of such as are capable of pursuing it. In his argument he had especially in mind the schools of Italy, and it was in consideration of their limited resources that he advocated a low standard, believing that the aim should be to give a minimum instruction to as large a number as possible rather than a fuller instruction to a favored few. It does not then necessarily follow, as we inferred, that, if he is right, we in America, with our higher standard of attainment, are all wrong.

Day-Schools in California.—The State Legislature has passed the following act, approved March 9, 1903:

SECTION 1. A new section is hereby added to the Political Code, to be known as sixteen hundred and eighteen, to read as follows:

1618. The board of education of every city or city and county, or board of school trustees of every school district in this State, containing five or more deaf children, or children who from deafness are unable to hear common conversation, between the ages of three and twenty-one years, may in their discretion establish and maintain separate classes in the primary and grammar grades of the public schools, wherein such pupils shall be taught by the pure oral system for teaching the deaf.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

ADVERTISEMENT.

Wanted, a position as teacher in some school for the deaf. The applicant will also be willing to teach gymnastics to girls. Collegiate and other references furnished. Address A. Care of the Editor of the *Annals*, Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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LIBRARIES IN STATE SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.*

INTRODUCTION.

DURING my three years' term as librarian in the Illinois State School for the Deaf, the question often came to my mind, "How do our State institution libraries compare? How are they alike, and how do they differ?"

Only one point of comparison could be found. The number of volumes in each library is given every year in the January number of the *American Annals of the Deaf*. The largest libraries are also included in the annual report of the Commissioner of Education.

There was no way of finding out the details of administration, equipment, and style of furnishings; of knowing which were most progressive and active; of studying methods of co-operative work with schools; of comparing plans for increasing circulation and for raising standards of reading.

It occurred to me that an exchange of suggestions and methods would be advantageous to these libraries. It would bring them all into closer touch, would increase the

* Thesis for the degree of Bachelor of Library Science in the State Library School in the University of Illinois, Presented June, 1903.

value of work done, and encourage renewed effort when the old plans had failed.

By correspondence with State institutions I have been able to compile the following table of statistics showing the size, circulation, methods, and use of these libraries. Where answers were too vague to be understood, or were omitted entirely, blank spaces are left. Eleven schools which failed to send any reply to inquiries are retained in the list of institutions, but the line opposite each name is left unfilled.

A study of mechanical organization soon led to the larger question of the library's usefulness to the pupils and its influence upon school work. I have considered at some length the problem of reading for the deaf, because it is one of the most important phases in the education of deaf-mutes, and in the hope that suggestions gathered from these replies may be of practical use.

It is a pleasure to acknowledge the valuable assistance received in correspondence with men and women who have had years of experience in this work, and are well known among educators of the deaf. I have quoted freely from some of these letters in regard to the latest results of methods used.

A discussion of library methods and of reading naturally involved one of books. My purpose was to compile a list suitable for deaf children, books they would be eager to read, and which, if added to the library, would make it very attractive to these readers. The list does not pretend to include all the books the children ought to like, but rather shows what books they have liked best in a few institutions. They are arranged in three general groups for Primary, Intermediate, and Academic departments. Under each group they are divided into Class A for school room study, and Class B for home use. Initials at the left side of each entry indicate school lists from which each book was taken.

NOTES ON THE COMPARATIVE TABLE.

Questions in regard to school libraries were sent to every State institution for the deaf in America.

Where answers were not forthcoming, repeated inquiries usually secured the desired information. Nevertheless, some replies have not yet been received and others have varied in fullness and accuracy, thus preventing the comparison being as complete as was desired.

The prompt and willing co-operation on the part of many superintendents and teachers was certainly appreciated. Especially was this true when seemingly unimportant questions were fully and carefully answered. Perhaps others felt as Superintendent Hammond did when he said in his quizzical, humorous way, "I suppose you would need, in order to complete your statistics, the exact number of boys with blue eyes that took books, and the number of boys with black eyes; the same with the girls; and the number of left-handed boys who patronized the library, and the number of girls that wore above a number-three shoe. If you desire to go so minutely into details in your statistics, we could probably add this." If every school had sent as satisfactory a reply as that of the Kansas Institution, there would have been no empty lines and spaces.

Of fifty-seven requests sent to State institutions, forty answers were received. Eleven schools, most of them having small libraries, failed to send replies. Of the six remaining, three were not State schools and could not be included; two found it impossible to make any report; one having a library of more than 2,000 volumes failed to comply with the request for two reasons: "Complete records of circulation are not kept," and "Having numerous other duties I have to simplify those of librarian as much as possible."

Year	Age	Sex	Color	Religion	Marital Status	Education	Occupation	Health	Character	Notes
1850 (?)	g. and purchase	5000	varies-yes	185 v.	{mostly juvenile	all	varies	yes		
1886	g.	100	int. on fund	200 v.	general	all	yes	no		
1890	g. and purchase	500	none	irreg.	juvenile	pupils	"	"	6	
1881	"	1000	"	"	general	all	few	yes	few	
1881	"	220	"	"	"	"	6	"	6	
1900	purchase	1010	irreg.	juvenile	juvenile	pupils	few	yes	few	
1897	purchase	2500	irreg.	210 v.	general	all	none	yes	none	
1897	purchase	1534	250	varies	"	"	6	yes (tr.)	6	
1877	g.	600	none	200 v.	general	all	yes	yes	yes	
1877	purchase	889	none	200 v.	general	all	none	no	no	
1852	"	3000	irreg.	200 v.	juvenile	"	38	yes	38	

† Patrons, i. e. teachers, pupils, or employees.

† Patrons, i. e. teachers, pupils, or employees.
* Highest monthly record is indicated in parenthesis.

+ Records preceding fire of 1903.

Received too late to include except in table.

CIRCULATION.

NAME OF SCHOOL.	PUPILS.	ADULTS.	* BOOKS.	RECORDS.	REPORTS.	PUPILS COME.	LIBRARY OPEN.	MONTHS.	PERSON IN CHARGE.
Alabama School.....	40	few	3)	quarterly	stated times	alternate Sat. evenings	9	pupils
Arkansas Institute.....	100	45	classes	evenings and Saturdays	8	teachers (2)
California Institution.....	60	20	7)	stated times	all day	9	teacher
Colorado School.....	74	17	(193) 166	yes	none	"	Sat. evenings	9	"
Connecticut—American School.....	100	25	temp.	"	"	every day
Florida Institute.....	55	none	"	independently	always	9	teacher
Gallaudet College.....	"	"	"
Georgia School.....	425	78	(1066) 740	yes	both	classes & independently	daily, 5 hours	9	librarian
Illinois School.....	97	100	(100) 75	"	yes	stated times	Sat. mornings	9	teacher
Indiana Institution.....	145	temp.	none	stated and ind.	Wed. and Sun. evenings	9	"
Iowa School.....	167	25	172	none	"	stated times	evenings and Saturdays	9	"
Kansas School.....	87	49	95	"	stated and ind.	evenings	9	"
Kentucky Institution.....	none	"	stated times	all day	8	"
Louisiana Institution.....
Maine School.....	104	11	none	none	stated and ind.	always	10
Maryland School.....	7	"	"	stated times	once a week	10	teacher
Maryland School for Colored.....
Massachusetts—N. E. School.....	300	200	(946) 600	yes	none	all three ways	daily, 6 hours	10	visitor's attendant
Michigan School.....	121	temp.	"	Sat., 1 hour	9	teacher
Minnesota School.....	45	22	75	yes	both	classes	daily, 8 hours	9	librarian
Mississippi Institution.....	95	26	75	none	none	"	twice a week	10	teacher
Missouri School.....	3	10	yes	"	independently	unspecified	12	"
Montana School.....	75	20	(63) 45	none	"	stated times	daily, 1 hour	9	"
Nebraska Institute.....	38	55	181	yes	"	independently	always	12	superintendent
New Jersey School.....	few	none	"	"	at any time	varies	none
New Mexico School.....	250	52	850	yes	annual	daily, 6 hours	9	teacher
New York Institution.....
—Albany School.....	stated times	always	12	teacher
—Central Institution.....	yes	none
—Imp'd Instr'n Inst.....
—Le Conteulx Inst.....
—Northern ".....
—St. Joseph's ".....
—Western ".....	100	50	300	yes	none	all three ways	always	12	office clerk
North Carolina Inst. (Raleigh).....	none	"	independently	Saturdays	10	teacher
North " Sch'l (Morganton).....	60	40	yes	"	stated and ind.	daily, 3 hours	9
North Dakota School.....	33	6	25	"	"	classes
Ohio Institution.....	225	12	827	"	"

NAME OF SCHOOL.	CLASSIFICATION.	CATALOGUE.	CHANGING SYSTEM.	BOOKS REPT.	FINES.
Alabama School	none	none	ledger	2 weeks	yes
Arkansas Institute	subject	yes, in bk	cards	no limit	no
California Institution	Decimal	printed	ledger	2 weeks	"
Colorado School	none	none	"	no limit	"
Connecticut—American School.	subject	type-written	ledger	2 weeks (ren.)	no
Florida Institute	subject	none	cards & ledger	no limit	"
Gallaudet College	subject	printed	cards & ledger	2 weeks (ren)	"
Georgia School	subject	none	ledger	2 weeks	"
Illinois Institution	subject	printed	"	"	"
Iowa School	none	none	"	4 weeks	"
Kansas School	subject	printed	ledger	1 week	no
Kentucky Institution	subject	cards	cards	"	"
Louisiana Institution	none	printed	"	"	"
Maine School	yes	printed	cards	2 weeks (ren)	no
Maryland School	subject	printed	cards	2 weeks	"
Maryland School for Colored ..	yes	partly	books	no limit	nominal
Massachusetts—N. E. School ..	subject	yes	ledger	2 weeks	"
Michigan School	none	printed	cards	no limit	"
Mississippi Institution	Decimal	yes	"	"	"
Missouri School	yes	printed	"	"	"
Montana School	none	yes, in bk.	"	"	"
Nebraska Institute	subject	on cards & in bk.	neither	no limit	"
New Jersey School	subject	none	led or	1 week (ren.)	"
New Mexico School	none	printed	"	"	"
New York Institution	yes	none	cards	no limit	no
—Albany School	none	none	"	"	"
—Central Institution	none	"	"	"	"
—Imp d Instr'n Inst	"	"	"	"	"
—Le Outreau Inst	"	"	"	"	"
—Northern	"	"	"	"	"
—St. Joseph's	"	"	"	"	"
—Western	"	"	"	"	"
North Carolina Inst. (Raleigh) ..	Decimal	on cards	cards	no limit	no
"	none	yes, in bk.	ledger	2 weeks	"
North Dakota School	partly	none	"	1 week (ren.)	nominal
Ohio Institution	none	on cards	cards	no limit	no
Oklahoma Institute	yes	yes, in bk.	ledger	1 week	"

<i>Oregon School</i>
Pennsylvania Institution	Decimal	on cards	cards	no limit	yes, for injury
Pennsylvania Oral School.....	Decimal	on cards
-- Western Pa. Inst..	yes	printed	ledger	2 weeks	no
Rhode Island Institute.....	partly	yes, in bk.	no limit	"
South Carolina Institution.....	none	yes, in bk.	2 weeks (ren.)	"
South Dakota School.....	yes, in bk.	2 weeks	"
Tennessee School.....	subject	yes, in bk.	ledger	no limit
Texas School.....	subject	yes, in bk.	ledger	2 weeks	no
Texas School for Colored.....	none	yes	1 week	"
Utah School.....	printed	ledger	2 weeks (ren.)	no
Virginia School.....	arranged by grades	yes, in bk.	"
Washington State School.....
West Virginia School.....
Wisconsin School.....

ADMINISTRATION.

The general administration and supervision of books in these libraries is in charge of many different persons:

25 libraries.....	teacher in charge.
2 libraries.....	office clerk in charge.
1 library.....	visitors' attendant in charge.
1 library.....	supervisor in charge.
1 library.....	superintendent in charge.
1 library.....	pupils in charge.
2 libraries.....	librarian in charge.
2 libraries.....	no one in charge.
6 libraries.....	no statement made.

The advantages of a plan by which the library can be open at stated times, allowing free access to readers and the service of a librarian, cannot be too strongly urged. In too many libraries the teacher who carries the library key must be hunted up when books are wanted. Whoever is in charge of the library needs a little time each day for various duties. He must keep the books in order, he should become familiar with their contents, and he should record all books drawn from the library. He should keep a little collection of attractive books in some prominent place, and he should make out lists for the purchase of new books.

CATALOGUES.

12 libraries.....	printed catalogues.
5 libraries.....	card catalogues.
9 libraries.....	no catalogues.

Most of the printed catalogues are old and sadly out of date. At least three of the card catalogues are still in process of construction. The statement of several schools that their "Catalogue is written in a book" is not clear;

this may be a list of books as they stand on the shelves and not a real catalogue.

It is encouraging to note the progressive methods employed in rearranging the Colorado library, and in reorganizing the Western Pennsylvania library since the fire three years ago.

The librarian of the Colorado school is classifying its library of 3,000 volumes according to the decimal system. There is an old catalogue in print, but a new one is in preparation which will be both on cards and in printed form.


In a library constantly acquiring new books, it is interesting to compare the use made of the printed catalogue, which cannot include new books, with that of the card catalogue, in which is filed a card for every book as received.

The Western New York Institution has a card catalogue kept in boxes in the playrooms, and also in the library. Pupils are not all allowed to go to the library, but make out their lists of books from the catalogue and send them by one of the older pupils.

The Western Pennsylvania Institution has, for purchase of books, the interest on an endowment fund of \$5,000 given by Mr. Andrew Carnegie. With this money the Principal has been authorized to buy the entire number of volumes in the list of best books for children recently compiled by the Carnegie Library of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, and the Cleveland Public Library. By the co-operation of these two libraries, a complete card catalogue for the list of 1,053 books is in preparation. With new books, and this excellent catalogue, the Institution library will be splendidly equipped for its work.

CLASSIFICATION.

Four libraries use the decimal classification. Most of the others are arranged in a general way by subjects. It



would be wise for new and small libraries to adopt in the beginning an accepted scheme of classification rather than the necessarily crude and imperfect subject groups that busy teachers find time to make. Deaf-mutes will easily grasp the number plan for subject groups as given in the decimal classification.

RECORDS OF CIRCULATION.

The lack of records of circulation is one of the greatest faults in nearly all institution libraries. Only twenty-one keep full records of books used, and of these three are temporary. Sixteen, on request, kept records for a representative month, as for January or March. Six could give no record at all, but this might be explained by the location of the library. Six only had the record of highest circulation for any one month.

No matter how small the library, nor how busy the teacher in charge, the keeping of simple records should be insisted upon. This can be reduced to a minimum and yet be sufficient to enable the librarian to know at any time how many readers, both adults and pupils, there are, and how many books are drawn each month. Every book must be charged as it leaves the library, and monthly records can easily be compiled from either ledgers or readers' cards. In the *New Era*, and probably in other school papers, there is space devoted each week to notes from the library. Reviews of new books, lists on special subjects, topics of interest in the library for the past week are mentioned, and monthly reports are printed here. A summary of records ought always to be included in the annual or biennial reports of the school.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

Not one of the institution libraries is a depository for United States public documents, although a few have been.

In several libraries certain sets of reports are received, such as reports of the Smithsonian Institution, the Commissioner of Education, and the Geological Survey. If the valuable material in them is utilized the library is fortunate in having them. Otherwise, their size, weight, and great number of volumes will prove a serious inconvenience.

LOCATION.

The Connecticut and Wisconsin schools have separate libraries for teachers and for pupils. In Maine and Rhode Island the books for pupils are divided into two groups and kept in the reading-rooms for boys and girls. This plan has the advantage of keeping a well-selected reserve of books and magazines in a room easily accessible to the pupils. Books are invitingly at hand whenever pupils come in and out during the day.

Alabama has no school library, but makes donations from time to time to the collection owned by the Johnson literary society. Members elect their own librarian, issue books weekly, and select new books with the help of the teacher.

Each of the societies in Gallaudet College has its own collection of books aside from the main library.

In seventeen institutions the main libraries are used as pupils' reading-rooms and are supplied with periodicals. In at least four institutions the pupils' reading-rooms are separate from the library and all magazines and periodicals are kept in these reading-rooms.

NEW BOOKS.

Usually books are purchased each year for the use of both teachers and pupils. As many as eleven schools are buying exclusively or largely for the children, making a special effort to provide an abundance of suitable reading.

SELECTION OF BOOKS.

Lists of new books for purchase are made out by the superintendent or, more frequently, by the superintendent in co-operation with the librarian and teachers. Suggestions for such purchase will be found in book-stores, in published catalogues, in book reviews, and in lists of best books of the month.

Buying from book agents is a practice to be discouraged. Prices are higher, and usually material is cheaper than when the same book is purchased through a reliable publishing house.

The weeding out of old and useless books is hardly less important than the selection of new books.

THE BAKER LIBRARY.

Mention should be made of the Baker Library of nearly 600 volumes, formerly owned by Dr. Charles Baker, of England, and now in Gallaudet College. This library is devoted to the subject of deaf-mute instruction, the treatment of the deaf, and a study of the structure and diseases of the organs of hearing. Many volumes are of great rarity and value.

EXCHANGE OF LIBRARY NEWS.

If some plan could be devised and made practical by which a monthly exchange of library news could be effected, it would be one of the best possible incentives to a higher standard of librarianship. Such a comparison of methods and results would tend to broaden the work of each library. It would increase the circulation of books, improve the character of the pupils' reading, and add to the growth of the library. The columns of whatever institution paper these library notes should appear in ought to have frequent illustrations of the school libraries, both exterior and

views; illustrations of pictures and bulletins used; books for certain seasons and days of the year. Such a plan of continual exchange of work and ideas would be of great value to small as well as large libraries, and would help to secure for the library its legitimate place in the school.

READING FOR THE DEAF.

The question of reading for the deaf has been often and ably discussed, but is still an unsolved problem. Various methods have been tried with success in a few schools, and have been recommended for general use, and yet results are in most cases far from satisfactory.

Reading is to deaf-mutes what conversation is to hearing children. All teachers of the deaf know the great value of the reading habit to the children when once acquired, and this phase of training has been repeatedly emphasized. Considered in direct relation to school work, reading has long been regarded as one of the most effective aids in language teaching. In the education of the deaf language is the central and all important study around which all others are grouped. By this means alone the mind is opened and broadened, and is enabled to get an intelligent grasp on all other lines of study.

Ten years ago Dr. Alexander Graham Bell made the following statement, which explains the difficulties there are to conquer:* "The sign language is used as the ordinary means of communication, and the English language is taught chiefly as a school exercise, somewhat as German and French used to be taught in our public schools. Pupils translate from English into the sign language and *vice versa*. On this plan they think in the sign language, and English is apt to remain a foreign tongue. Thus, not only is it the case that a majority of our deaf-mutes are

* Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1884.

not taught to speak, but, alas, they, many of them, do not learn to read and write correctly. They often write in broken English, as a foreigner would speak. It is a lamentable fact that deaf-mutes are mere children in their knowledge of our literature. They do not read books above the grade of children's books."

Practically the same statement holds true to-day. Idioms and difficult constructions still form the great stumbling-block in reading, and it is a task to pick the threads of a story out of the language. A teacher of wide experience and reputation has said in regard to this point: "I find that hardly a pupil that comes to me can read so as to grasp the salient points of the simplest book that is published. There should be a concerted effort from the day the child enters school to lead him to employ books for his pleasure and advancement. I believe teachers in general do not recognize the importance of this work in fact, however much they do in theory."*

Reading is also one of the best aids in the study of natural history and science. It is seldom a deaf-mute will voluntarily choose to read on such subjects, but his interest can easily be aroused when these are studied in the class. He will then read with pleasure some of the many charming books available for supplementary reading. With the deaf, as with hearing children, it is easy to encourage reading along lines of interest; the secret lies in creating the interest.

Considered simply from the librarian's point of view, the question is of the greatest importance and deserves special study. Teachers know and understand their pupils, they know their needs, their peculiar hindrances and difficulties, and the almost discouraging confusion of mind. They know best what ability and what power of

* Samuel G. Davidson, of the Pennsylvania Institution, Correspondence.

comprehension there is to be developed. But the teachers have the responsibility of all the school work that must be carried on each day, and too often there is little or no thought given to the guidance and encouragement of reading. If it is impossible to set aside a daily reading period during these precious years, then the library must supply this need.

In most schools for the deaf the librarian is a teacher. This plan has two advantages: (1) the librarian fully understands his readers, and (2) he can wisely advise in their choice of books. But it has most serious disadvantages: (1) a good teacher must give his best time and effort to his class work, and can do little more than open the library and see that books are charged; (2) the room cannot remain open for reading and reference; (3) requests for books for immediate school use cannot be answered when the teacher-librarian is hearing recitations; (4) readers are discouraged by repeatedly finding the door locked; (5) when it is necessary to use the library, the teacher in charge must be hunted up; (6) there is no time for carrying out plans that shall broaden and strengthen the work of the library.

Fortunately, in few schools is the person in charge an office clerk or a visitors' attendant. It might easily be the case that such librarians neither understand the pupils nor are familiar with the resources of the library.

Either way is a makeshift, and should in time be superseded by the plan already followed in two institutions of having a special librarian. Only in this way can one become familiar with the arrangement of books, their contents, illustrations, and suitability for pupils. With the hearty co-operation of librarians who know their books and of teachers who know their pupils, the library will occupy the important and responsible position it should in the work of the school.

In recent years there has been so great an improvement in the character of children's books issued by school publishing houses that every library can have a good supply of attractive books at very little expense. With the aid of reviews in magazines and periodicals, suggestions from teachers as to school needs, visits to book-stores and study of publishers' catalogues, the librarian can make the wisest selection of new books. Every library should have a special fund, no matter if it must be small, for the purchase of new books. The size of the older and larger libraries does not necessarily indicate a better working collection than will be found in some of the smallest and newest libraries. The acquisition of new books at frequent intervals draws attention to the library. These books must be so attractive with their illustrations, large print, and simple language, as to keep the interest of the pupils and to give children of narrow home horizon, of sordid and perhaps vicious surroundings, a glimpse into the great world of books. What Miss Lawrence says of hearing children can be made true of the deaf: "No child in an environment of those who love good literature . . . will fail to acquire the taste."*

Unless the library is exclusively for children there should be included in each purchase a few books of real value to adult readers, either for subject-matter or for illustrations and engravings. In this way the school will gradually accumulate a most serviceable collection, making the library a place of information as well as of pleasure, where the wants of all readers, whether pupils, teachers, or employees, shall be satisfied.

An excellent custom, followed in several schools having large general libraries, is to assign certain days and hours, every week or two weeks, for class visits to the library.

* Isabel Lawrence, *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*, vol. 40, p. 85.

Busy teachers may often forget the day assigned, but pupils seldom fail to remember it. The children are always eager for the first visit, and look forward with anticipation to library day. A class of pupils who have never seen the library should by all means have an explanation by the teacher. They should be shown the general arrangement of all the books, that some are of travel around the world, some are histories, some about plants and animals, or lives of men and women, and some are just stories. They must know the distinction between their own and the teachers' part of the library, and be encouraged to think of the time when they will be allowed to take those "wise" books.

The great value of allowing pupils access to the library is that they shall be imbued with the library atmosphere and get some idea of the vastness of literature. It need scarcely be said that details of neatness, order, cleanliness, careful handling and use of books are quite as important and must be repeatedly urged in the beginning. Although the teacher practically makes the final selection, children should be given the privilege of hunting through the shelves for books they like. If half the class can be selecting books while the other half are looking at pictures, they will become familiar with the location of favorite books, and will learn to appreciate and not misuse their privilege.

With books attractively arranged, a librarian ready and willing to offer any help needed, and a teacher who knows the subjects in which the children are most interested, these periodical visits to the library can be made so delightful that pupils never weary of coming. Above all, the routine of weekly work must not become so habituated as to require no thought or preparation for new plans and methods.

Even the little children just beginning to read should

sometimes come to the library. Their little fingers will unconsciously open and close in the sign "Many, many," and the multitude of books may be confusing to their little minds, but they take keen interest in everything about them. With plenty of primers, first and second grade readers, and little folks' magazines they are ready for half an hour's pure enjoyment in finding pictures of familiar objects, and in reading words or even whole sentences.

Providing suitable reading, and holding the interest of intermediate pupils—that large heterogeneous middle class—is the most difficult problem the librarian has to face. There must be a beginning, a persistent continuing, and a wise development of the reading habit. The whole problem must be based upon a study of child psychology, a knowledge of instinctive interests which culminate at different periods of child life. At each stage of growth from infancy to maturity a child has a natural craving for certain kinds of books, has likes and dislikes for which he knows no reason. All the sympathy, tact, and interest one has will not be too much to cultivate his pleasure in the companionship of good books.

One great reason why the deaf are not such readers as they should be has been the lack of suitable reading matter. In the last few years this need has been supplied in some measure by printing in nearly every school paper a page of stories especially for the youngest readers. For older pupils adaptations have been made of such stories as "Black Beauty" and poems like "Evangeline." It seemed a pity that material especially prepared by teachers and so excellent for its purpose should not be saved in permanent form.

The Western Pennsylvania School was among the first to publish such a collection in book form, and for more than twenty years their "Raindrop" has held the first place

in the hearts of the deaf. At present the Colorado School saves the children's page of the *Index* for the use of younger readers. Michigan has for some years followed the same plan with the intention of printing this material in three grades. The printing is done in the institution office at odd times and proceeds but slowly.

A long-talked-of plan has finally been carried out, of collecting stories from all institution papers and publishing them in book form. The first book, called "Far and Near," has been sold in every State in the Union, every Province in Canada, and is even being introduced in common schools. It is exactly what the children need, has many illustrations, and is full of the things they know about.

Adapted reading is one of the best means of forming and encouraging the habit of reading among younger pupils. As they grow older and advance in their studies, they are able to read the ordinary books of hearing children.

The librarian and teacher cannot think of too many ways for winning the interest of these pupils. Frequently a demand for a story is created by the teacher's telling or writing either the whole or a part of it. Sometimes pupils are asked to write out the story of a striking illustration in a favorite book. The requirement of a daily news budget has been very successful in many schools, and has a direct influence on the development of reading. One teacher in the Illinois School whose pupils were too young to read daily papers had the blackboard filled each morning with selected news items in simple language. The children were full of eagerness to read them, and add whatever local news they could. Minnesota has a daily summary of news written by teachers assigned to this work. Intermediate pupils in the Western New York Institution have as their only evening study a weekly paper to read and be able to tell the news in it. Pupils are encouraged to tell to others what they are reading.

In the Pennsylvania Institution much attention is given to the reading of newspapers. The lower of the five academic classes must bring to school every morning a number of items they have gleaned from the day's papers, writing them on the wall slates for discussion and criticism. The higher classes are set composition exercises on news topics that require extensive and critical reading.

There is a question in considering intermediate pupils, as to who shall select their books. (1) The "teacher" selects and is responsible, as in Rhode Island, or (2) the teacher selects suitable books for the class and the pupils are then responsible, or (3) pupils select for themselves and are responsible for the care and return of books.

The first plan insures least annoyance to the librarian, least trouble to the teacher, and brings a highly commendable list of books to the class, but gives the children far less pleasure than if they had gone to the library and chosen for themselves.

Objections to both the first and second plans are these: (1) the child loses whatever benefit is to be obtained from contact with a large room full of books; (2) he is deprived of the pleasure and experience of seeing and choosing his book; (3) he has no feeling of proprietorship unless he can see the number put down opposite his name and know that the book is his for a whole two weeks; (4) worst of all, he may lose interest in reading, may grow to dislike these eminently suitable books and refuse to read them.

Possibly these objections are extreme, but they are based upon facts from one of the best equipped and most used libraries for the deaf. Younger pupils may be satisfied with a set of books selected by the teacher and passed around the class until read. As they grow older they may be expected to dislike this arbitrary selection, and are most in need of wise and friendly guidance. "Older pupils select with advice of teachers" is the reply from

most schools. Choice of reading in later years depends largely on the training received during school years.

To guard against too hasty or careless choice it was made the rule in one class that books read during the weekly reading period should be library books. When pupils found that these books had to be read, whether difficult, dry, or otherwise unsatisfactory, they learned to examine a book carefully before taking it.

Mr. Veditz tried the same plan in his class in the Colorado School, setting aside a definite time each day for reading. In regard to the value of the plan he says: "My opinion is that the time was well invested and the results were palpably good. My observation was that it made the pupil take a more intelligent interest in his book, and the dictionary assumed more of the place it should hold."* He urges the need of a certain reading hour each week, possibly the Sunday evening hour, with a teacher in charge and pupils free to ask for explanations.

In the Western New York Institution there is a teacher who devotes forty-five minutes daily to teaching reading. Second and third year classes come to her room and talk over the story together. This interests the pupils and makes them want to read for themselves. Older pupils take out library books and are expected to read them in this stated hour.

Intermediate classes read for pleasure, academic for pleasure and profit. Endless encouragement and guidance are needed to develop the power of intelligent reading, but as pupils grow older they must become more independent. Most of their pleasure reading must be done outside of school hours and rests largely with themselves. The duty of academic teachers is to show the value of the library in connection with school studies.

A prominent city librarian made the statement a few

* George W. Veditz, Correspondence.

years ago that too much stress was laid upon supplementary reading. There was danger of carrying the plan to such an excess that these "semi-disguised text-books" would lose their intrinsic value and interest.* But all teachers of the deaf know the great value of such reading.

The interest excited in class discussion when pupils have done supplementary reading, the pleasure of comparing results and of being able to talk over what they have read, serves to fix a lesson in the mind as a study of text-books alone could not do. Probably few children would, from personal choice, take books on natural history and science, but when attractive little books are found to contain just the illustrations or descriptions that bear on the lesson, they are readily accepted as good reading. For classes in English, American, and general history there should be a generous supply of famous stories, lives of noted men, and history tales.

The term supplementary reading should not be confined to little books of simple language and profuse illustrations, but should include books of travel, collections of engravings, and general biographies. The Illinois School is especially fortunate in its number of beautiful engravings and illustrations. Frequent use has been made of the illustrations in the ten-volume set of Stoddard's Lectures, and of the large photographs in his "Around the World." One of the chief delights of a class in American history was to use the five precious volumes of *Harper's Weekly* for 1861-1865 in connection with their study of the Civil War. English history classes made frequent use of two quaint little paper-covered books published in London by Rutledge—"Pictures of English History," and "Trades of London." These colored illustrations, four on each page, were the best possible repro-

* Frederick M. Crunden, Proceedings of the National Educational Association, vol. 40, p. 110.

reductions of customs and costumes the pupils could have read. Natural history students found much to instruct and interest in the six-volume work of J. G. Wood, called "Animate Creation."

Many institutions have adopted the plan of keeping a small collection of books in different schoolrooms. This collection should contain several good dictionaries and works of reference, with from ten to fifty books that will be needed in connection with the studies of the next few weeks. Pupils must become familiar with the use of indexes, reference books, and cyclopedias. Champlin's "Cyclopedia of Persons and Places" and his "Cyclopedia of Common Things" are indispensable. There should be duplicate copies of books needed in several classes at the same time.

Such a collection has some advantages over a general library. It is accessible to pupils at any hour of the day. It encourages concentration of mind that time may be gained for reading. Books are at hand for constant reference during recitations. Frequently some book in the collection will catch the fancy of a boy or girl who has hitherto expressed little or no desire for reading and it will be taken out for home use. Judging from the reply of the Wisconsin School, it has carried this plan almost to an extreme in having twenty classroom libraries largely drawn from and probably superseding the main library. As a result the children are reading more than before.

The most satisfactory plan is to have both the school-room collections and the main library. Books in the former should be changed frequently. The latter, whether main, society, or reading-room libraries, should be constantly added to and be such that older pupils will want to spend their leisure time here. As many schools as can afford to follow this plan. The North Carolina School (Morganton) has in each room a library of as many,

sometimes twice as many, books as pupils. When any recitation is over any child may take a book to read until called on for the following recitation. Every spare moment he may be reading. Special emphasis is placed on the freedom of the pupils' use of books, both in the classroom and in reading-room libraries.

As to the pleasure reading of academic pupils, when teachers can give even slight supervision, there are several ways of helping students. Very often a story outline given in chapel, or before the literary society, will lead to the pupil's reading the whole story. This shows how much easier it is for a pupil to read the whole when the general character has been interpreted in signs previously.

Pupils should be encouraged to bring to the librarian their subjects for essays or debate. Everything that would be helpful in their work should be made accessible. The librarian must take an interest in the work of the literary societies, all school entertainments, and preparation for special day programmes. There should be a place in every library for posting notices, lists of text-books on special subjects, and occasional picture bulletins.

One of the best ways of knowing how well pupils understand what they read is to ask them to write the story in their own words. Being individual work and without a teacher's supervision, the result may be a complete failure as far as language is concerned, but to the librarian it shows how much of the book was read, how clearly it was understood, and what part of the story made the strongest impression. Pupils are a little flattered by the request, and seldom refuse. The writing is excellent drill, encourages the habit of reading a book through, and serves to fix the whole story more clearly in the mind.

It is just as much a duty of librarians and teachers to correct bad habits as to encourage right ones. There is so little time outside of school hours, work hours, and study

hours, that whatever reading is done should not be of worthless books. Pupils like, talk of, and recommend to each other such books as the "Alger" and "Elsie" series. Before the librarian or teacher may have noticed, a child has read enough to become fascinated with them and nothing will do but he must finish the set. To spend perhaps twenty-eight weeks of one school year on fourteen "Elsie" books, and the succeeding year on a long shelfful of "Alger" books, is to spend two valuable years in the cultivation of a taste for cheap literature and false ideals. Reading a few such books would not be harmful if made stepping-stones to something better. If libraries can have a good supply of books by such writers as Baldwin, Eggleston, Wiggin, Alcott, and Coffin, they do not need to include Alger, Ellis, Optic, and Henty.

The same danger of the exclusion of better and more scholarly reading has to be considered when encouraging the reading of newspapers and periodicals. Older pupils in school and graduates are often voracious newspaper readers and display a knowledge of terms such as are used in reports of athletics and games that might easily puzzle their teachers. Short items and broken columns of news must not be allowed to replace the sustained and continued interest in books.

The general observance of a special reading hour has already been mentioned. Better still is the plan followed in at least two schools of having a specified course of reading. In the Illinois School the old custom of reading-circle books and classroom libraries is still observed. In addition to this, pupils of the upper six classes read and study about two books yearly in connection with regular school work and are examined on them. The plan has proved to be an excellent one.

At the Pennsylvania Institution a more elaborate course of reading has been adopted. Mr. Davidson's description

of it may be of value to some other schools: "I have a series of books graded as to difficulty of thought and language, a copy for each pupil of the class. They are also selected with a mind to the kind of language it is most desirable to teach deaf children and their division into parts, each of which will constitute a whole, of from ten to twenty pages each. A part is given for evening study hour and the next morning pupils are required to write out an abstract of it in their own language without any assistance from the teacher. Their efforts are then criticised and I give my own version of the story orally. When the book is finished it is reviewed in the same way if the book has not been very well done. Then I find as a rule that all the pupils in the class are able to read any similar book, no more difficult in thought and language, intelligently and with interest. We then proceed with a more difficult task. What we have read before is utilized in many language exercises, such as condensing a whole book into a few lines, or expanding the thought to any desired length. This I find the most effective way of increasing the pupil's vocabulary, giving elasticity of thought and expression, teaching the relative importance of facts and ideas, and giving the sense of proportion that so many of the deaf lack. Pupils who take the full course have read these books before graduating and are able to read any book of which these are types. The list of books in the order of their use is as follows: Old Greek Stories, Greek Heroes, by Kingsley, Hawthorne's Wonderbook, Hawthorne's Biographical Stories, Hawthorne's Grandfather's Chair, Robinson Crusoe, Swiss Family Robinson, Adventures of Ulysses, by Lamb, Pilgrim's Progress, Stories from Scottish History (mostly selections from Scott), Selections from Ivanhoe, Plutarch's Lives, Irving's Sketch Book, Knickerbocker's History of New York, Courtship of Miles Standish, Evangeline, selections from Holmes, Whittier, and Bryant."*

* Samuel G. Davidson, Correspondence.

This is certainly an ideal of quality and standards seldom reached in work for the deaf, but may serve as an inspiration. Most experience proves that very few of our graduates, unless they are semi-mutes, will read the works of standard authors after they leave school. Some who go to college will, but many of them will read simple novels. The language of our standard books is out of the reach of the majority of our graduates.

Education is not finished when pupils receive their diplomas. Deaf-mutes are more or less isolated and must, on leaving school, depend upon themselves for further advancement. Pupils who read a great deal show the most rapid improvement and approach most nearly to the normal person in quality and degree of mental development. Broader knowledge and higher ideals are best attained through the companionship of good books. The amount and character of reading done in later life depends on the habits formed during school years. It is then that interests are easily aroused, sympathies are keen, the mind is easily impressed; then, if ever, the deaf child has a desire to read, and a craving for knowledge outside of himself.

Much has been suggested that is not new, but it is offered in the hope of stimulating renewed effort where past attempts have failed. Only by more active co-operation between school and library and by more thoughtful endeavor on the part of teachers and librarians can the best results be secured.

No suggestion has been made in a spirit of criticism or faultfinding. Many institution libraries have no annual appropriation, and are forced to make the best of what they have.

For those which can secure an appropriation, for new libraries being organized, and as an inspiration to those which have made indifferent use of their opportunities,

this comparison has been made, plans are suggested, and methods offered which may help to make the library a strong and guiding influence in the lives of its readers.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE FOLLOWING LIST OF BOOKS.

Ct.	American School for the Deaf, at Hartford.
Home.	Home for Training Deaf Children, Philadelphia.
Ill.	Illinois School for the Deaf.
Md.	Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb.
N. C.	North Carolina School for the Deaf (Morganton).
N. J.	New Jersey School for the Deaf.
N. D.	North Dakota School for the Deaf.
O.	Ohio Institution for the Deaf.
Tex.	Texas School for the Deaf.
Utah.	Utah School for the Deaf.
W. N. Y.	Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes.
W. Va.	West Virginia School for the Deaf.
I.	Primary department.
II.	Intermediate department.
III.	Academic department.
c.	For use in class.
p.	For pupil's home use.

LIST OF POPULAR BOOKS.

I c

(Ill.) Æsop. Fables. Bost. Lothrop. \$1.00 (Ginn. .35).

(Ct. Home. W. N. Y.) Arnold, S. L., and Gilbert, C. B. Stepping Stones to Literature. First Book. N. Y. Silver, Burdette & Co. .30.

(Ct. Ill. W. N. Y.) Blaisdell, V. A., and Blaisdell,

M. F. Child Life. First Book. N. Y. Macmillan. 1900.
.25.

(Ill.) Carroll, S. W. Around the World. Book 1. N. Y.
Morse. 1901. .40.

(Home.) Cook, F. J. Nature Myths and Stories. Chic.
Flanagan. 1898. .35.

(Ill.) Fairy Ring. Bost. Lothrop. 1898. .25.

Norton, C. E., ed. Heart of Oak Books. v. 1-2. Bost.
Heath. 1897. .25 each.

I p

Caldecott, Randolph. Caldecott Picture Book. N. Y.
Warne. .40.

Cinderella Picture Book, illustrated by Walter Crane.
N. Y. Lane. \$1.50.

(Md. Ill.) Far and Near: Graded Stories for Little
Folks. Toronto, Can. Morang. 1902. .35.

Mother Goose Jingles. N. Y. Dutton. \$1.50.

READERS.

(Ill.) Aldrich, G. I., and Forbes, Alexander. Progres-
sive Course in Reading. Books 1 and 2. N. Y. Butler,
Sheldon & Co. 1900. .30-40.

(Ct. Ill.) Baldwin, James, ed. School Reading by
Grades. Books 1 and 2. N. Y. American Book Co.
1897. .25-35.

I p

(Ill.) Finch, Adelaide. Primer. Bost. Ginn. .30.

(Utah.) Swinton, William, and Cathcart, G. R. Sup-
plementary Reading.

(Utah.) Calmerton, Gail, and Wheeler, W. H. Graded
Readers. Bk. 1. Chic. Wheeler. 1901. .30.

II c

(Minn.) Baldwin, James, ed. Fairy Stories and Fables.
N. Y. American Book Co. 1896. .35.

(Md. Minn. W. Va.)—Fifty Famous Stories Retold. N. Y. American Book Co. 1896. .35.

(Ill.)—Four Great Americans. N. Y. Werner School Book Co. 1897. .50.

(Minn. W. Va.)—Old Stories of the East. N. Y. American Book Co. 1896. .45.

(Home.) Brooks, E. S. Century Book of Famous Americans. N. Y. Century. \$1.50.

(Ill.) Carroll, S. W., and Jerome, H. L. Around the World. Second Book. N. Y. Morse. 1898. .50.

(Ct. Minn. N. J.) Eggleston, Edward. Stories of Great Americans for Little Americans. N. Y. American Book Co. 1895. .40.

(W. Va.) Hawthorne, Nathaniel. Grandfather's Chair. Bost. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. .50.

(Home.) Holbrook, Florence. Hiawatha Primer. Bost. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898. .40.

(Minn.) Husted, M. H. Stories of Indian Children. Bloomington Public School Pub. Co. 1898. .50.

(Minn. N. D.) Johonnot, James. Some Curious Flyers and Swimmers. N. Y. American Book Co. .40.

(Minn. N. D.)—Neighbors with Claws and Hoofs. N. Y. American Book Co. .54.

(Ill. Home.) King, C. F. Pictorial Geographical Readers. 6 v. Bost. Lee & Shepard. .50-.75.

Long, C. C. Home Geography. N. Y. American Book Co. 1894. .25.

Payne, F. O. Geographical Nature Studies. N. Y. American Book Co. 1898. .25.

(Minn.) Pratt, M. L. American History Stories. 4 v. Bost. Educational. .40.

READERS.

(Ill.) Aldrich, G. I., and Forbes, Alexander. Progressive Course in Reading. Books 2 and 3. N. Y. Butler, Sheldon & Co. 1900. .30-.40.

- American Asylum readers. Books 1 and 2. Hartford,
Ct. American School for the Deaf.
(Minn.) Shaw, E. R. Big People and Little People of
Other Lands. N. Y. American Book Co. 1900. .30.
(Ill.) World at Home. v. 1-3. N. Y. Nelson. .75.
(Ill.) Wood, J. G. Natural History Readers. v. 1-4.
Bost. Boston School Supply. .25.-50.

II p

- Æsop*, Fables (see I c).
(Ct. Home. Ill.) Eliot, Samuel, ed. Arabian Nights'
Entertainments. Six Stories. Bost. Lee & Shepard.
.75.
Blaisdell, E. A., and Blaisdell, M. F. Child Life in
Tale and Fable. N. Y. Macmillan. 1900. .35.
(Home. N. C.) Carroll, Lewis (Charles L. Dodgson).
Alice in Wonderland. N. Y. Macmillan. 1888. \$1.00.
Cook, Nature Myths and Stories (see I c).
Craik, Mrs. D. M. (Mulock). Little Lame Prince.
N. Y. McKibbin. 1900. .40.
(On all lists.) Crane, J. E. Bits of History. Hartford.
American School for the Deaf.
Fairy Ring (see I c).
Far and Near (see I p).
(Ill.) Foster, Charles. First Steps for Little Feet in
Gospel Paths. Phil. Foster. .75.
(Ark. Ill.) Grimm, J. L. K., and Grimm, W. K. House-
hold Tales, tr. by Lucy Crane, illus. by Walter Crane. Bost.
Houghton. 1897. .40.
(Ill. Ark.) Harrison, C. C. Old-Fashioned Fairy Book.
N. Y. Scribner. \$1.25.
Hoyt, Rebecca. Legends of the Springtime. Bost.
Educational. 1899. .40.
(Ill. Md.) Jenkins. Talks and Stories. Hartford.
American School for the Deaf.

(Minn.) Lane, Mrs. C. A. Stories for Children. N. Y. American Book Co. 1895. .25.

(Ill. Ky. W. N. Y.) Lang, Andrew, ed. Pink Fairy Book. N. Y. Longman. 1898. \$1.00.

(Ill. Ky. W. N. Y.) Red Fairy Book. N. Y. Longman. 1898. \$1.00.

(Ill. R. I.) Lothrop, Mrs. H. M. S. (Margaret Sidney) Five Little Pepper Series. 5 v. Bost. Houghton. \$1.50 each.

Norton, C. E., ed. Heart of Oak books. v. 3-6. Bost. Heath. 1897. .25 each.

II p

(Minn.) Pyle, Katherine. Prose and Verse for Children. N. Y. American Book Co. 1899. .40.

(Ct. Ill. Mich. Minn.) Raindrop, a monthly miscellany of entertaining reading for young people. Western Pa. Inst. 1880.

READERS.

(Ct. Ill.) Baldwin, James. School Reading by Grades. Books 3 and 4. N. Y. American Book Co. 1897. .35-.40.

(Ill. Utah.) Calmerton, Gail, and Wheeler, W. H. Graded Readers. Book 2. Chic. Wheeler. 1900. .40.

(Ct. Home.) Judson, H. P., and Bender, I. C. Graded Literature Readers. Books 1 and 2. N. Y. Maynard. 1899. .25-.40.

(Ill.) McMurray, L. B. Classic Stories for Little Ones. Bloomington Public School Pub. Co. 1897. .40.

(Utah.) Swinton, William, and Cathcart, S. R. Supplementary Reading. Books 2 and 3.

(Minn.)—Scudder, H. E. Fables and Folk Stories. Bost. Houghton. 1890. .40.

Book of Fables. Bost. Houghton. 1890. .40.

(Ill. Miss.) Smith, J. R. Four True Stories of Life and Adventure (Santa Rosa stories). N. Y. Harrison. .36.

(Ill. Miss.) Story of Washington (Santa Rosa stories). N. Y. Harrison. .25.

III c

(W. Va.) Andrews, Jane. Seven Little Sisters. Bost. Cinn. 1893. .50.

(Md. W. Va.) Ten Boys who Lived on the Road From Long Ago Till Now. Bost. Ginn. 1885. .50.

(W. Va.) Badlam, A. B. Views in Africa. (World and its People Ser.). N. Y. Silver, Burdette & Co. 1897. .75.

Baldwin, Old Stories of the East (see II c).

(Minn. W. Va.)—Old Greek Stories. N. Y. American Book Co. 1895. .45.

(Ill. Home.) Blanchan, Neltje. Bird Neighbors. N. Y. Doubleday. 1897. \$1.50.

(Minn.) Brooks, E. S. Historic Boys. N. Y. Putnam. 1897. \$1.50.

(Ill.) Carpenter, F. G. Asia. N. Y. American Book Co. .60.

(Home. Ill.)—North America. N. Y. American Book Co. .60.

Champlin, J. D. Young Folks' History of the War for the Union. N. Y. Holt. 1881. \$2.50.

(Md. Ill.)—Young Folks' Cyclopedia of Common Things. N. Y. Holt. 1881. \$2.50.

(Md. Ill.)—Young Folks' Cyclopedia of Persons and Places. N. Y. Holt. \$2.50.

Coe, F. E. Modern Europe. (World and its People Series). N. Y. Silver, Burdette & Co. 1898. .60.

(Home.) Dana, Mrs. W. S. Plants and their Children. N. Y. American Book Co. 1896. .65.

Dawes, A. L. How we are Governed. Chic. Interstate. 1885. \$1.00.



(W. Va. W. N. Y.) Guerber, H. A. Story of the English. N. Y. American Book Co. 1898. .65.

(W. Va. W. N. Y.)—Story of the Thirteen Colonies. N. Y. American Book Co. 1898. .65.

(W. Va.) Hawthorne, Nathaniel. Wonder Book for Boys and Girls. Bost. Houghton. .40.

(Ill.) Hazard, B. E., and Dutton, S. T. Indians and Pioneers; an Historical Reader. N. Y. Morse. 1897—. .50.

Hurl, E. M. Landseer. Bost. Houghton. 1901. .50—

(Minn.) Husted, M. H. Stories of Indian Chieftains—Bloomington Public School Pub. Co. .50.

(Minn.) Kelly, Mrs. M. A. B. Short Stories of our Shy Neighbors. N. Y. American Book Co. 1896. .50.

(Tex.) Kingsley, Charles. Greek Heroes. Bost. Ginn. .30.

(W. N. Y.) Lamb, Charles. Adventures of Ulysses. N. Y. Harper. .30.

Morley, M. W. Bee People. Chic. McClurg. 1900. \$1.25.

(Minn.) Pratt, M. L. People and Places Here and There. 4 v. Bost. Educational. .60.

(Minn.)—Stories of Colonial Children. Bost. Educational. .60.

(Ill.) Ragozin, Mme. L. A. History of the World; Earliest Peoples. N. Y. Harrison. 1889. .60.

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SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF AND FOR THE BLIND NOT CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

AT the time, now nearly a hundred years ago, when the first schools for the education of the deaf and of the blind were established in America, such schools already existed in Great Britain. The British schools were generally called institutions; the largest and most important of them was styled an asylum—a title which it still retains; another bore and bears the name of hospital.

These British schools were founded and maintained entirely by private charity, and were therefore classed as charitable institutions, though their educational purpose was recognized. The same is true not only of schools for the deaf and for the blind, but of all the English free schools of that time; they were known as "charity schools." Charles Lamb in his *Essays* has made us familiar with Christ's Hospital or "Blue-Coat School," where he and Leigh Hunt and Coleridge were schoolfellows, and he speaks of the most illustrious of this trio as "the inspired charity boy." Thackeray takes his revenge on the similar free school that he and Grote and other famous Englishmen attended, Charterhouse, by calling it Slaughterhouse in his earlier stories; in his later novels, when time has softened his memories, he gives it the less repulsive name of Grey Friars'. In America, on the contrary, our free schools have always been supported by public taxation, and education in them has never been regarded as charitable, but as the birthright of every child.

The early founders of American schools for the deaf and for the blind in their preliminary steps followed English precedent. They contributed money, interested their friends, sought subscriptions, secured acts of incorporation

from the State legislatures, and (most unfortunately) called their schools asylums or institutions.

Long before that time, however, the duty of the State to provide for the education of all its children had been recognized in this country, and as soon as the schools for the deaf and for the blind were established they applied to the legislatures for support on the ground that their pupils had the same right as other children to education at the public expense. The justice of this claim was generally recognized, and appropriations were made by the legislatures for that purpose. In a few of the older States this arrangement still continues; the schools are under corporate management and have endowment funds resulting from former gifts and bequests, which the State supplements by paying a *per capita* rate for the pupils in attendance.

So far as the education of these pupils is paid for by the State it cannot be called charitable, for "the State cannot dispense charity. Any attempt at charity on the part of the State would be a violation of the rights of tax-payers. The very elements of charity are lacking in any appropriation from the public treasury for the support of any institution whatever."* The State educates these children, as she does all her children, in her own interest; for educated they become self-supporting citizens, while left uneducated they are liable to become criminals and paupers. The schools are sometimes spoken of as "institutions aided by the State;" as the late Mr. Lewis J. Dudley once said, it would be more correct to say that the State is aided by the institutions, for with the help of their endowment funds she is enabled to educate her children at less than cost.

If, however, we consider these early schools from the point of view of their origin, their corporate character, and their endowment, they may be classed, legally at least, as

* Frederick Howard Wines, in the *International Record of Charities and Corrections* for March, 1887.

charitable institutions. The same is true of our incorporated colleges and universities; in the eye of the law they are charitable institutions. In the famous Dartmouth College case Chief Justice Marshall held that a college was an eleemosynary corporation* and the same opinion has been reaffirmed in a score of judicial decisions. The principle is well established that "a charity, in a legal sense, includes not only gifts for the benefit of the poor, but endowments for the advancement of learning, or institutions for the encouragement of science and art, without any particular reference to the poor;" and that "schools established by private donations and carried on for the benefit of the public, not with a view to profit, are institutions of charity."†

In a legal sense, then, our endowed schools for the deaf and for the blind must submit to be classed with all endowed schools, colleges, and universities as charitable institutions. But the legal sense is not the common sense; in the popular conception the idea of charity is not associated with ordinary schools, colleges, and universities; they are considered not from the legal point of view of their endowment, but from the common-sense point of view of their purpose. Their purpose is educational; they are therefore universally regarded as educational institutions. The purpose of schools for the deaf and for the blind is also educational; should they not be regarded as educational institutions? There is not a student in Harvard or Yale the expenses of whose education are not paid in large part from endowment funds, irrespective of tuition fees; but no one ever thinks of applying the term charitable to the education of students at Harvard or Yale; why should it be applied to the education of pupils in the Perkins Institution or the Clarke School? This question was put to the

* *Dartmouth College v. Woodward* (4 Wheaton, 526, 542).

† *Gerke, etc., v. Purcell* (25 Ohio St., 229).

Massachusetts legislature in 1875 and the result was that these schools were removed from the supervision of the State Board of Charities and placed, where they properly belong, under the supervision of the State Board of Education. But not all States are as enlightened as Massachusetts.

What has been said of the charitable character, from a legal point of view, of certain endowed and incorporated schools for the deaf and for the blind applies only to a few schools in a few of our oldest States (Connecticut, District of Columbia, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania*). The great majority of our American schools for these classes are public schools; they have been established by the State legislatures, in some cases they have been provided for in the State constitutions; they are maintained wholly by public taxation. There is no reason whatever for regarding them as charitable.

In some of the States the purely educational character of these schools, their entire dissociation from the idea of charity, is recognized, in others it is not. In ten States (Alabama, California, District of Columbia, Florida, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, New Jersey, North Dakota, and Virginia) it has been clearly defined by legislative or constitutional action† In two (Florida and New Jersey)

* In Connecticut, District of Columbia, Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania the schools for the deaf are incorporated institutions, but in the District of Columbia by law of Congress one of the directors is a senator appointed by the President of the Senate, and two are congressmen appointed by the Speaker of the House of Representatives. In Maryland, Massachusetts and Pennsylvania the schools for the blind are incorporated institutions. In New York there are two schools for the blind, one is an incorporated institution and the other is a State institution. The school for the deaf in Maryland and all the schools for the deaf and schools for the blind in other States than those above mentioned are State schools.

† Perhaps the most explicit legislative action is that of the Congress of the United States relating to the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb in the District of Columbia. After providing that the

the schools are under the direct control of the State Board of Education. In nine (Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, New York, Ohio, and Tennessee) they make reports to the State Board of Education or the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. In seven (Alabama, Florida, Minnesota, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, and Virginia) the Superintendent of Public Instruction is *ex officio* a member of the board of trustees. In two (Michigan and New York) the schools are subject to the supervision or visitation of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. In five (California, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin) provision is made for day-schools for the deaf in various localities in addition to the large State school; there are also day-schools in two cities (Boston and St. Louis) in other States. These day-schools are all classed as part of the common-school system.

On the other hand the schools for the deaf and for the blind in two States (Kansas and South Dakota) are under the direct control of the State Board of Charities. In nine (Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee) the Board of Charities has the right of inspection, recommendation, and suggestion. In one State (Kentucky) the committee of the legislature that has charge of the affairs of these schools is entitled "Committee on Charitable Institutions," in another (Mississippi) "Committee on Benevolent Institutions," and in a third (South Carolina) "Committee on

admission of pupils from the District shall be subject to the approval of the Superintendent of Public Schools, the law adds: "And said Institution shall not be regarded nor classified as an institution of charity." Congress took this action because the Attorney-General of the United States had given an official opinion that the Institution, in view of a provision in its act of incorporation for the admission of "such deaf and dumb as were in indigent circumstances," was "charitable in part, and so far as to classify it justly, for the purposes of the Board of Charities Act, under charitable and eleemosynary institutions." See the *Annals*, vol. xlv, page 345.

Penal and Charitable Institutions." Probably a similar erroneous nomenclature is used in the legislatures of several other States.

On the whole, taking all the circumstances into consideration, the schools for the deaf and for the blind in nineteen States (Alabama, California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Florida, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Rhode Island, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia) seem to be classed by the State authorities as purely educational, and in twenty-two States (Arkansas, Connecticut, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin) as charitable or partly charitable and partly educational.*

When we consider that within our own memory these schools were universally classed as charitable institutions, it is certainly a gratifying sign of progress that in nineteen States their true character is now officially recognized. Probably the popular conception, however, even in those States lags somewhat behind the official recognition. While a little reflection will convince any reasonable man that the term charitable cannot justly be applied to the education of any children, the unthinking public everywhere are slow to realize it. For instance, the compilers of city directories are certainly not below the average of mankind in intelligence, but what superintendent of a school for the deaf or for the blind in a city has not had to have a struggle with the compiler of the directory to persuade him to put the school in the list of educational institutions rather than among asylums, homes, and other charitable institutions?

Why is it that people are so slow to comprehend the true character of these schools?

* I am indebted to the heads of schools for the deaf in the several States for most of the data upon which these conclusions are based.

One reason is doubtless the unfortunate names of asylum and institution—especially asylum—which were given these schools in former years and which still cling to some of them. Happily the legal use of these names is now passing away; most of the schools recently established are entitled schools and many of the older ones are changing their names. But the familiar terms linger; “*consuetudo est altera lex*”: “man yields to custom as he bows to fate.”

Another reason why some people regard schools for the deaf and for the blind as charitable is that food and shelter as well as instruction during the school term are provided by the State. They are willing to admit that free tuition and opportunity for self-development should not be called charitable, but they insist that free board should. The State, however, does not provide board for her children as an act of charity; she provides it as a necessary incident of their education. For ordinary children schooling is brought to their doors; in some cases, where they live at an inconvenient distance, the scholars are transported daily to school at public expense, because it costs less to bring the children to school than to bring the school to the children. On the same principle it is found to be more economical, as well as productive of better results, to instruct the deaf and the blind in central schools, paying for their food and shelter during the term, than it would be to bring the school to their doors or bring them daily to the school. To parents the boarding feature is by no means a welcome boon. The afflicted child is often the most tenderly loved member of the family; they do not willingly entrust it to the hands of distant strangers. As the child becomes older and would be able to assist in the work of the farm and household, its absence from home is a pecuniary loss. The parents submit to the necessity of separation as a painful sacrifice, which they make for the good of the child and

the benefit of the State.*—If the food and shelter were a charity, the State would have no right to give it.

The heads of schools generally insist that their work should be classed as educational and not charitable, but perhaps they themselves are sometimes responsible to some extent for the erroneous classification. It may happen that they have at their service a State Board of Charities composed of intelligent, sympathetic men who take an active interest in the welfare of the school, make valuable suggestions, support them in their endeavors to obtain needed appropriations, and defend their good name against unwarranted attacks and unjust criticism. On the other hand the State Superintendent of Public Instruction may be a man who cares nothing for the interests of the special classes, performs his duties in connection with their education in a perfunctory manner, or neglects them altogether. There is a State in which that officer is required by law to visit the State School for the Deaf once a year, but as a matter of fact he has visited it only twice in ten years. It is not strange under such circumstances that the authorities of the school should prefer the friendly visits, timely suggestions, and cordial support of the Board of Charities to the indifference of the Department of Education. As one head of a school writes, "In theory our connection with the Board of Charities is all wrong; in practice it could not be improved upon."

Again, the school authorities may lend countenance to the objectionable classification by resting their claims for the support of the school upon motives of charity rather than of justice. There is a strong temptation to do this, for an appeal to the feelings sometimes meets with a readier response than an appeal to the reason. The simple claim that the right of special classes to an education rests upon

* See the Eighteenth Report of the Clarke Institution, quoted in the *Annals*, vol. xxxi, page 67.

the same basis as that of ordinary children in public schools makes but a slight impression upon some legislators; while a stirring appeal to their humanity and compassion, presenting the education of the deaf or the blind as a work of benevolence and mercy, is likely to result in a "generous" appropriation.

It may sometimes be desirable to have the co-operation and support of the State Board of Charities as well as the Department of Education in the work of our schools, and there may be occasions when the simple declaration of the right of the children and the duty of the State does not suffice, and it seems as if the very existence of a school would be endangered unless the chord of sympathy in the heart of the legislator were touched; but we should never lose sight of the injurious effect produced upon the general public, upon the parents and friends of the children to be taught, and upon the children themselves, whenever their education is allowed to be classed as charitable. What is the effect upon the public? An erroneous impression of the character of the work and the nature of the schools is created and diffused. What is the effect upon the parents? It arouses a prejudice against the school and sometimes deters them from sending their children. What is the effect upon the pupils—the "beneficiaries of the State," as they are sometimes called? If they realize the injustice and cruelty of the stigma thus placed upon them, it tends to humiliate and embitter them; if they do not realize it, or realizing complaisantly accept it, it harms them still more by tending to degrade and demoralize them, discouraging self-activity, and leading to dependence and pauperism.

The latest State to place its schools for the deaf and the blind in the purely educational class is Virginia. This was done by the Constitutional Convention of 1902 after a full discussion of the merits of the case. Of the effect of this action the Superintendent, Mr. William A. Bowles, writes:

"Since our school has parted company with the eleemosynary institutions and been legally recognized as part of the public school system of the State, its true character is becoming more generally known and the attendance has greatly increased. We do not now have to send our agents to solicit patronage; the trouble is to make room for all who are clamoring for admission. This difficulty will soon be remedied, we trust, by increased facilities. But this elevation of our school to its right position has had a more far-reaching effect. As long as our institution was classed among asylums and prisons, our pupils were looked upon as dependents, and were often referred to as 'patients' and 'inmates.' This was always mortifying to their sensitive natures, and had a strong tendency to repress aspirations to higher ideals. They felt that they were socially ostracised as a class, and that there was nothing ahead of them but as 'hewers of wood and drawers of water.' Now since they have been invested with their just rights, they appreciate the dignity of their position and the possibilities before them, and slumbering ambition has been aroused. They feel that the way is clear to business success and social elevation, and 'clannishness' is no longer so apparent. Our school has been brought into much greater prominence, and the public generally are taking far more interest in the work that we are doing. Our pupils receive more favorable notice, and many little social courtesies are extended them which have a tendency to sweeten their lives and make them forget that they are different from other people. The effect of the change is strikingly shown in the greater progress made both in the schoolrooms and in the workshops. This gratifying result is due mainly to the fact that the tone of the school has been elevated and our pupils inspired with higher hopes."

E. A. F.

THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, BOSTON, 1903.

AMONG the numerous meetings of the thirty thousand teachers who gathered in Boston last July to attend the Forty-Second Annual Convention of the National Educational Association, the two meetings of the Department of Special Education attracted more attention than one would have expected from the limited scope of its work. About two hundred persons were present at each meeting of this Department. They included some superintendents, principals, teachers, and trustees of schools for the deaf; among them were Dr. Crouter and Mr. Davidson of Pennsylvania, Mr. Jones, Miss Greener, and several other teachers of Ohio, Mr. Johnson and Mr. Bonner of Indiana, Mr. Ray of North Carolina, Mr. Connor of Georgia, Mr. Dobyms of Mississippi, Dr. Gallaudet and Mr. Hitz of Washington, Mr. Gruver and Mr. Wright of New York, Miss Yale and Miss Gawith of Northampton, Dr. and Mrs. Westervelt and Mr. Lyon of Rochester, Mr. Hare of Florida, Miss Fuller and many teachers of the Horace Mann School, Mrs. Crane, Miss Camp, Miss McCowen, Miss Bingham, and several other teachers of Chicago, Mr. Spencer and Miss Wettstein of Milwaukee, Miss Barry of Cleveland, and Miss Van Adestine of Detroit. There were also representatives of schools for the blind and for the feeble-minded; among the former were Mr. Wait of New York, Mr. Anagnos of Massachusetts, Mr. Allen of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Morrison of Maryland. But the great majority of the audience seemed to be persons not connected with special schools, who came with the desire

to learn from specialists something that might be of service to them in their work as teachers of common schools. :

The Proceedings of the Department will be published as a part of the great report of all the meetings, which is to be printed and supplied free of charge to all members of the Association. The Proceedings of this Department may also be obtained in paper covers at cost if ordered at once through Mr. Edward E. Allen, Principal of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind, Overbrook, Pennsylvania. In the preparation of the following report we are indebted to Mr. Allen for kindly furnishing us with abstracts of the papers read.

The session of Wednesday morning, July 8, began with the President's address, by Mr. EDWARD E. ALLEN. He said that the word "Special" in the title of the Department had received some criticism, but it had been adopted after long consideration because no other word could be found that expressed the character of the Department so well. If the term is defective, the defect is in the English language.

When President Eliot last winter summoned the presidents of the departments of the National Educational Association to meet him in Boston he stated that he wished each department would limit itself, if practicable, to four topics to be treated in two papers and four discussions each. He then called upon each president in turn for the subjects he wished to have brought up in his department. Mr. Allen's turn came last. He said that no topic or subject that had been mentioned by the presidents of the fifteen other departments but had definite relation to some phase of our special work of educating and training children requiring, in some part of their schooling, special means of instruction. He brought forward about twenty topics suggested by our own work, every one of which could with just as much propriety be discussed in one or another of

the other departments of the Association, thus showing that at one point or another our special work not merely touches their work, but is their work, as theirs is ours.

Now if this be true, what need is there for a Department of Special Education? Mr. Allen's answer was, first: that if the work of teaching and training children hampered by defective faculties not merely presents questions of interest to general teachers, but can also help them solve certain difficult problems in their own work, then it is imperative that the best means be had for bringing these matters into full and proper notice, and neither a good nor a proper place can be found for them in departments where hosts of questions of much moment would certainly crowd out our questions; and, secondly, that any instrumentality such as our department now is which will offer to our special teachers a programme sufficiently attractive to bring together from twenty to forty of them, and put them in more or less close touch with many thousand other teachers at a great convention like this one, is helpful and broadening to them, and has sufficient reason for being.

Against this second position it is sometimes urged that we teachers cannot be expected to attend every year these conventions in the various sections of this great country. That is very true. But the very fact that the meetings are held so often and in such different parts of the land makes our departmental meetings all the more useful, for they thus reach different teachers each year, and so have a wider influence than if they reached the same ones over and over again.

The objects of this Department are identical with those of any other department of the National Educational Association, viz., to afford an adequate opportunity for the discussion of topics relating to one special field of work, but interesting and instructive to all teachers; and

to provide a means of affiliating this special work with general education.

The members of this Department represent the education of children deficient in three distinct ways. The teachers of each one of these three kinds of children have different ways of gaining their ends, and have their meetings where these may be discussed with profit. At these meetings of the National Educational Association there should be no intolerance, no exploiting of specialties, but the discussion of general subjects in the spirit of absolute good fellowship. The charitable side of our work is so patent to the outside public that the educational side is largely lost sight of. Here is a chance to emphasize the more important side of our work. But if this Department is to be a success, it must be conducted on the broadest possible lines.

Mr. FRANK H. HALL, of Aurora, Illinois, formerly Superintendent of the Illinois Institution for the Blind, and Mr. GEORGE E. JOHNSON, Dean of the Lower School, University School, Cleveland, Ohio, read papers on the "Influence of the Study of the Unusual Child upon the Teaching of the Usual Child."

Mr. HALL said that, strictly speaking, every child is "unusual" in one or more respects, as individuality develops. There is no such thing as an "average child."

But, generally speaking, we may group all children into two classes, calling those children "unusual" whose education must be carried on under unusual conditions. The "normal" or "average" children can be taught by means of the three senses,—feeling, hearing, seeing.

The necessity of a sense-basis in the educational process is conceded by all. Thought deals with the images of things perceived through the senses, then with imaginative creations. "Emancipation from bondage to the things of sense" is necessary in sense-training, and too much time

feeble-minded child has all the avenues of the normal child. The difficulties are of centralization more than of avenues of approach. The difficulties encountered in teaching the normal child are met greatly magnified in the feeble-minded. The teacher of the feeble-minded has been forced to the physiological method. He has emphasized, more than anyone else, the value of object-teaching, of sense-training, of hygiene, of individual attention. He has found that all he does must be done in accord with certain established facts of evolution and in harmony with the laws of physiology. The education of the feeble-minded has emphasized the value of play in education, and demonstrated the necessity of adapting the instruction to the stage of development of the child.

The study of the unusual child has put the individual child in our midst; has made for sympathy; has disclosed the seat of the difficulty, showing that supposed stupidity was often the result of defect of eye or ear; has emphasized the value of play and spontaneity in education; has helped to fix the relative importance of the several senses in education; has emphasized the importance of sense training; has practically created the physiological method; has made clearer the application of evolution to education; has kept in the foreground the social object of education, rendering the helpless helpful members of society. The schools for unusual children present the best object-lessons available to the teachers of normal children.

This subject was further discussed by Dr. FRANCIS BURKE BRANDT, Professor of Pedagogy, Central High School, Philadelphia, and Mr. CHARLES F. F. CAMPBELL, of South Acton, Massachusetts, formerly instructor in the Royal Normal College for the Blind, London, England.

Dr. BRANDT said that, speaking from the point of view of the training of the normal child, the study of the unusual child has already produced an influence upon the

teaching of the usual child that is illuminating, instructive, and inspiring.

In the first place, such study has demonstrated the almost infinite possibilities of education. Sometimes in our public schools we are in danger of turning away from children because they are dull or stupid or incapable of being taught. But one Laura Bridgman and one Helen Keller have taught us, more than all our child-study investigations put together, that there is an avenue to every soul. Such cases have taught, too, the larger lesson that the twentieth century must neglect the nineteenth century dictum of the survival of the fit, to put in its place the higher principle of fitting to survive.

In the second place, such study has demonstrated the superior effectiveness of special methods and special teachers to accomplish ends which meet the individual needs of the child. In this connection such studies as Mr. Hall's, pointing out the relative value of these senses as well as the importance of ultimate emancipation from the senses, together with the necessity of training for some form of social service, can be of incalculable worth in revising our methods of handling the normal child.

In the third place, such study has been highly illuminating as to the importance of right conditions in training a child. The favorable conditions which prevail in many institutions for the special training of special children, in the form of the fewness of pupils assigned to each teacher, the assignment of special subjects to teachers, the adequacy and adaptability of equipment, and the respect, sympathy, and resources of trustees, have important lessons for those in authority who administer the training of the normal child.

Summed up, the study and training of the unusual child have rendered the greatest service to the elevation of the individual and the progress of humanity to the ex-

tent that it shows that there is almost no depth of physical, intellectual, and moral defect on the part of the individual which the impulse of Christian motive, the intelligence of modern science, and the energy of civilized society combined cannot reach.

Mr. CAMPBELL'S remarks were limited to the education of the blind child as the unusual child, and are therefore not reported here.

Miss MARY C. GREENE, formerly Superintendent of Special Classes for the Blind in the Board Schools, London, England, read a paper on the question, "Should the Scope of the Public School System be Broadened to Take in All Children Capable of Education, and, if so, How Should This be Done?" She expressed a high appreciation of residential institutions for the education of special classes, but said they are open to the objections (1) that they do not give the practical training of the pupil's own home in household economy, but send him out into the world ignorant of life at the completion of his course; (2) that they tend to weaken home ties, and return the child to his family a stranger. She conceded, however, the necessity for residential institutions except in large cities. She gave an account of the methods of the London Board Schools. An annual census of the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded children is taken by school officers. Education is compulsory for the deaf from the age of seven to sixteen, for the blind from five to sixteen. In their education these children are entirely separated from normal children. Public conveyances are provided for those residing more than a mile from school, and, when distances are too great or home conditions are bad, the children are boarded out as far as possible in families of the same station in life or gathered in "homes." Industrial training is given, and the endeavor is to render the pupils self-supporting.

This question was further discussed by Dr. THOMAS D.

WILSON, Professor of Physical Training, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York; Miss ELLEN LE GARDE, Director of Physical Training, including that of backward children, Public Schools, Providence, Rhode Island; Mr. JOHN T. PRINCE, Agent of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, Boston; Dr. WALTER E. FERNALD, Superintendent of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded, Waverley, Massachusetts; and Mr. B. PICKMAN MASS, Secretary of the Board of Children's Guardians, including the feeble-minded, Washington, D. C.

Dr. WOOD said that the idea of education has been enlarged until we consider it rightly to-day as the process by which the individual is prepared for life, for human society, for citizenship. It is the duty of the State as the agent of society to make sure that the individual is qualified as perfectly as may be for complete citizenship. In our country, this means that the State shall demand a certain minimum of intelligence and training for all, and beyond this provide generous opportunities for the young to improve themselves, in order to add to power and capacity in every possible way, without pauperizing any one or decreasing individual responsibility and self-reliance. In our democracy, with the present standard of education among intelligent people, the well-to-do classes may be trusted to give their children, whether normal or not, at least an equivalent of the benefits of free public schooling. Leaving out of account, then, those who prefer to educate their children at private expense, the public school system is, or should be, better qualified than any other agency to set the standards of education for all children capable of education. This will be done most naturally and economically, where it is practicable at all, by the attendance of the child, while living at home, upon the public school adapted to the needs of exceptional children.

The home is still the most fundamental and vital of

human institutions. It is of great importance that the home do all that it can and will for the child, whether normal or not; important again that education stimulate the home in every way to a higher development and a more effective service in the care of the children. In many cases, of course, the State can provide better things for the child than he can get at home, and often the education of exceptional children can be accomplished only in special institutions. But it is really important that, where feasible at all, the young child should remain at home and that provision for instruction exist within convenient distance for attendance upon school. This is not feasible, of course, for most children requiring special education, except in large communities.

The scope of public education then should be enlarged to include all children capable of education, capable of becoming self-supporting members of society, and facilities for the training of special children should be developed as rapidly as possible, and with a relation to the home. The training of dull, backward, and moderately deficient children may best be accomplished by the ungraded room of the ordinary school under specially qualified teachers.

Those more deficient mentally, and often morally, who are yet capable of education, and many of whom may become independent members of society even of a low grade, should be kept away from normal children and trained in special schools like the *Hilfschule* in some European cities. Here they may have the best available opportunities and a further differentiation may be made between those educable and capable of life at home and in society, and those who should go permanently to institutions for the feeble-minded.

The deformed and crippled children should have their own more favorable conditions with the instruction and training best adapted to their limitations and needs. The

schools for crippled children in New York, some supported by philanthropy, some by public funds, show strikingly how much can be done for these handicapped children.

The deaf and the blind should be trained in special schools or under special teachers. They should live at home, when possible, at least up to the age of adolescence. Their more advanced training may very reasonably be completed away from home in special institutions maintained by the State as part of the public school system. The instruction of all special children, whether carried on at public or private expense, should be under public supervision, or at least subject to inspection of officers of public institutions.

MISS LE GARDE and Dr. FERNALD limited themselves in their remarks to the education of the feeble-minded. Miss LE GARDE described the work done in Providence and other cities for backward children, and Dr. FERNALD expressed the opinion that the merely backward or slightly feeble-minded children, not the imbecile and idiotic, might properly be taught in special classes in common schools. His closing remarks show how radically institutions for the feeble-minded differ from schools for the deaf and for the blind in their aims and results. He said that the hope of the pioneer teachers in this work, that many of the slightly feeble-minded could be educated and developed to the point of supporting themselves and of becoming desirable members of the community, has not been realized. A certain very small proportion do actually leave the schools and lead useful, harmless lives, supporting themselves in a precarious way by their own efforts. Of the great majority of these trained pupils, it has been well said that they may become "self-supporting, but not self-controlling." By far the greater number need oversight and supervision as long as they live.

A very large proportion of the feeble-minded persons,

even the well-trained higher grade cases, eventually become public charges in one way or another. No one familiar with the mental and physical limitations of this class believes that any plan of education can ever materially modify this fact. The brighter class of the feeble-minded, with their weak will power and defective judgment, are easily influenced for evil, and are very likely to become prostitutes, vagrants, or petty criminals. They are powerless to resist the physical temptations of adult life and should be protected from their own weakness and the cupidity of others. Especially should they be prevented from marriage and the reproduction of their kind.

Feeble-minded children may be tolerated in the community, but it is a great responsibility to inaugurate any plan on a large scale which does not withdraw the defective adults from the community.

Mr. PRINCE said that public school education is constructive in helping to create high ideals and intelligence and preventive in helping to hinder pauperism and crime. It is a wise provision of statute law for the upbuilding of society and for the happiness and usefulness of individuals that every normal child shall be assured of a common school education. It is no less the State's duty for its own protection to make obligatory the training of educable special children and the care of those who are not capable of improvement. This training and care should be carried on either in institutions under the direction of the State or directly in connection with the local public schools.

Those children only who do not need institutional treatment should be trained at home in separate groups. For the cities and large towns this will not be a difficult matter, as has been shown by experience. For country districts provision may be made for carrying children to a central school, or for establishing small home schools in convenient localities. These schools should be under the

charge and superintendence of the local public school authorities. In States like Massachusetts, where district supervision prevails, the schools may be under the direction of the superintendent and district committee, the expense of the schools being borne by the towns from which the pupils come. In country districts whose unit of government is the county, the schools may be organized and controlled by the county board and county superintendent; and the expense of carrying them on will be borne by the county.

It is therefore right and feasible for *all* educable children to be included in the scope of the public school system and to share in its benefits and obligations. It is also right and feasible for the State to place all educable children of a certain age under the statutory requirement of compulsory school attendance, to the end of giving all its citizens the benefits of intelligence and self-support and of guarding itself and society against the dangers of ignorance and crime.

Mr. MANN, who is a son of Horace Mann, expressed his approval of the term "Special Education" in the title of the Department. He said that if all children could be subjected to such methods of special education as he had witnessed in the Horace Mann School it would be greatly to their advantage. He believed that the work of the common schools should be broadened so as to include the education of all children.

The President appointed Messrs. A. L. E. CROUTER of Pennsylvania, F. H. HALL of Illinois, E. A. FAY of Washington, G. E. JOHNSON of Ohio, and W. E. FERNALD of Massachusetts a committee to nominate officers of the Department for the ensuing year.

The meeting then adjourned.

The first paper on Friday morning, July 10, was on the question, "How can the Term 'Charitable' be justly ap-

plied to the Education of any Children?" As this paper was substantially the same as the article published in the present number of the *Annals* under the title "Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind Not Charitable Institutions," no report of it need be given here.

Mr. WILLIAM B. WAIT, Superintendent of the New York Institution for the Blind, New York City, discussed the subject of the paper. He said that the question, "How can the term 'charitable' be properly applied to the education of any children?" presents three of the most important words in the English language: *children*, "For of such is the kingdom of Heaven;" *education*, the salvation of children and the hope of mankind; *charity*, greater than hope, and better than faith.

The basic idea presented is that of classification. Right classification is a condition necessary to good results. Wrong classification gives imperfect results. Right classification is necessarily scientific and helpful. Wrong classification is necessarily unscientific and harmful. Concretely, classification may be represented by the base of a right-angled triangle; method, by the altitude; and results by the hypotenuse. If classification be correctly extended and methods be poor, the side showing results will be disproportionate and inadequate; likewise if we have wrong classification and our methods be absolutely correct, still the side showing results will also be disproportionate and inadequate. Furthermore, error in classification will inevitably produce error in method.

It should be observed that the question refers to no special class of children, but to all children; to those of the rich and of the poor, the normal, abnormal, and sub-normal, the vagrant child, the idiotic child. Can the term "charitable" be properly applied to the education of any of these children?

If a certain stone be improperly classified as good build-

ing material and be used in the construction of a house, it will make no difference to the stone, but may be of vital importance to the occupants of the house. If a farmer classifies his cow as a butter maker when its milk should go to the cheese factory, it is of no importance to the cow, but is of importance to the farmer, and to the butter or cheese factory. When, however, children of any class or condition are improperly classified, the inevitable resulting loss must first fall upon them, and as both by nature and by law they are incapable of self-defence, it becomes the duty of parents, teachers, and the administrative agencies of the State, not merely to shield them from physical harm, but to protect them from self-negation, social disparagement, and degradation. It is unfortunate that any educational institution should ever have deemed it necessary to accept classification as charitable for the sake of money considerations. Educational institutions, if classed as charitable, may get more legacies than they otherwise would; but the cause of education cannot fail to be hindered and its standards lowered when money is received as charity. The education of all children is absolutely necessary to the well-being of the State, and they should be granted and should receive all things, whether directly essential or merely incidental to their education, as matter of right and of sound policy, and not as charity.

If a maximum of good results is dependent upon right classification and correct methods, what must be the effect on a child if he be classed as a recipient of charity, when he should be encouraged to put forth every effort to be self-respecting and self-reliant? If the word "charitable" were to be placed over every kindergarten, public school, and college in our land, the educational results would immediately be reduced to a minimum, and no claim or pretence of charity could prevent it.

Why then should children bereft of one sense be classed in this way?

He urged a careful examination by the teachers of all common-school children to ascertain if there were cases of deafness among them, and he presented a careful series of tests for such examinations. The cases of deafness found, he said, should be turned over to a medical expert, who should keep a record of his examinations, and of the reference of cases to hospitals or infirmaries, together with the result of treatment. Such tests, if adopted, would be of inestimable value to certain children and would do much to simplify the problems with which the teacher has to deal in determining educational fitness.

The other papers, "Facts and Fallacies in the Examination of School Children's Eyes," by Dr. MYLES STANISH, Instructor in Ophthalmology in the Harvard Medical School; "Defects in Vision of Feeble-Minded Persons," by Dr. ALLEN GREENWOOD, Ophthalmic Surgeon, Boston City Hospital; "Diseases of the Nose and Naso-Pharynx," by Dr. EUGENE CROCKETT, Boston; and "What Teachers Need to Know about Speech Impediments," by Mrs. E. J. ELLERY THORPE, Newton Centre, Massachusetts, all contained valuable advice and suggestions for common-school teachers, but do not come within the scope of the *Annals*.

The President laid before the Department a Report from the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Common-School Children. The report was signed "F. W. BOOTH, Committee, per A. G. B.," both Mr. Booth and Dr. Bell being absent on account of illness.

The report stated that the committee had found it difficult to obtain the statistics desired. Through the courtesy of the Hon. W. T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, a special circular of inquiry had been sent out by the Bureau of Education to 160 superintendents of public schools in cities having more than 25,000 inhabitants. Seventy-eight answers had been re-

ceived, but only nineteen reported any statistics, and only six of these presented the figures in such a way that they could be combined into a table. From the returns of these six cities the Committee had compiled two tables; the first showed that of 34,426 pupils examined 4,603, or 13.4 per cent., had defective sight; the other showed that of 57,072 pupils examined 2,067, or 3.6 per cent., had defective hearing. An Appendix (which was not presented to the Department) gives the returns received in detail.

In accordance with the recommendation of the Committee it was voted that a committee be appointed to examine and report upon the various means employed to test sight and hearing in the common schools and to collect comparative statistics concerning the results; also that the Bureau of Education be asked to continue the collection of statistics of this character.

The President appointed as the committee above-named Mr. F. W. BOOTH, of Pennsylvania; Professor PERCIVAL HALL, of Washington, D. C.; Mr. O. H. BURRITT, of Batavia, New York; Dr. C. J. BLAKE, of Boston; and Dr. H. PARKE LEWIS, of Buffalo, New York.

The following minute was adopted and the Secretary was requested to send a copy of it to Mrs. Gordon:

The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association desires by this minute to express its high appreciation of the character and services of its late member and former President, Dr. Joseph Claybaugh Gordon, who died April 12, 1903.

Dr. Gordon was active in the Round Table of Teachers of the Deaf held in connection with the meeting of the Association in Milwaukee in 1897, which resulted in the establishment of this Department. He was elected the first President of the Department, took a prominent part in all its meetings, and was a strong believer in the possibilities of its usefulness.

In his death we mourn the loss of one whose work as teacher, superintendent, writer, and speaker gave him a high place in our ranks, while his amiable disposition, attractive personality, and genuine friendship won our esteem and affection. We offer to his bereaved wife and children the assurance of our sincere and respectful sympathy.

Dr. CROUTER, from the Committee on Nominations, reported the following officers for the ensuing year: for President, Mr. J. W. JONES, of Columbus, Ohio; for Vice-President, Mr. F. W. BOOTH, of Mount Airy, Philadelphia; for Secretary, Miss ELIZABETH VAN ADESTINE, of Detroit, Michigan. The report was accepted and the officers named were unanimously elected.

The meeting then adjourned.

Besides the sessions of the Department of Special Education the members present had the opportunity during the week of attending other meetings not less inspiring and helpful, and hearing many papers and discussions by eminent educators. At one meeting, for instance, interesting addresses were given by eight prominent college presidents.

Miss Fuller, the teachers and the Parents' Association of the Horace Mann School, and Mr. Anagnos, Director of the Perkins Institution, took an active part in the generous hospitalities extended by all the citizens of Boston to the members of the Association. Both schools were open to visitors every day, receptions were held at the Horace Mann School every afternoon, and one day a lecture by Mr. Ross Turner on "Practical Artistic School Decoration" was given at the Horace Mann School. At the Perkins Institution a feature of especial interest is Mr. Anagnos's fine library of works relating to the blind, which includes also some relating to the deaf.

E. A. F.

THE THIRTEENTH MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF.

A PLEASANT social gathering of the members of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, with other invited guests, was held at the Horace Mann School, Boston, on Friday evening, July 10, 1903, and the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the Association was held at the same place, on Saturday morning, July 11. Most of the persons connected with the education of the deaf who are mentioned in the foregoing report of the meeting of the Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association as having been present at that meeting, were also in attendance at this meeting.

In the absence of the President, Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, who was prevented by illness from being present, Dr. A. L. E. CROUTER, First Vice-President, occupied the chair.

The minutes of the preceding meeting were read by the Secretary, Dr. Z. F. WESTERVELT, and were approved.

The two amendments to the Constitution relating to the enlargement of the Board of Directors, offered at the preceding meeting by Dr. Crouter and Mr. F. W. Booth, respectively,* were presented for consideration, and after a brief discussion, in the course of which Dr. CROUTER said that, though he himself had offered one of the amendments at the suggestion of Dr. Bell, he was opposed to both of them, on motion of Mr. EDMUND LYON they were rejected.

Mr. LYON submitted an amendment to the Constitution increasing the number of directors to fifteen. This amendment will come up for action at the next meeting.

* For these amendments see the May number of the *Annals*, page 272.

378 *Thirteenth Meeting of the American Association.*

The next business in order was the election of three directors to serve for three years in the place of Dr. Bell, Mrs. Gardiner G. Hubbard, and Dr. Crouter, whose term now expired. By direction of the presiding officer the Secretary cast the ballot of the meeting for Dr. BELL, Mrs. HUBBARD, and Dr. CROUTER, inasmuch as they and no other candidates had been nominated in advance as required by the Constitution.

President E. M. GALLAUDET addressed the meeting on the proposed Exhibit of Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind at the Universal Exposition to be held at St. Louis in 1904. He named the Committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf having the Exhibit of Schools for the Deaf in charge as consisting of himself (Chairman), Dr. N. B. McKee (Vice-chairman), Mr. A. E. Pope (Secretary), Mr. H. C. Hammond (Treasurer), Mr. A. E. Gruver, and Rev. J. H. Cloud, and he expressed pleasure that a Committee had been appointed by the Board of Directors of the Association to co-operate with this Committee. He explained how Mr. Pope's appointment as Secretary of this Committee and as Superintendent of Group Seven of the Department of Education (the Deaf and the Blind), was entirely disconnected from his other work in connection with the Department of Charities and Correction. He said the purpose of the Committee was to obtain a better exhibit than had ever been given at any exposition. It was to include all methods, and, if possible, a living exhibit. Mr. Howard J. Rodgers, Chief of the Department of Education, was a man of liberal views and hoped to make the educational exhibit the leading feature of the Exposition. There would also be in connection with the Exposition a series of congresses on scientific and educational subjects from which the education of the deaf ought not to be omitted, and he suggested in this connection that a meeting of the Conference of Principals might

be held at St. Louis at the time of the Congress. He asked the support and co-operation of the Association in the proposed Exhibit, and introduced Mr. ALVIN E. POPE, the Secretary of the Committee, who gave further explanations concerning the plans for the Exhibit.

Mr. POPE said that education would be given the first place in the Exposition, "Department A," and that the "Palace of Education" would be the centre of activities for the whole Exposition. In this building 10,000 square feet, including thirty rooms, had been assigned to the work of model schools for the deaf and for the blind. The Iowa School Supply Company would put in desks and another manufacturing company would supply other furnishings, all free of charge. There would be five dormitories connected with the Exposition, and one wing would be devoted to the use of pupils of these model schools. The cost to be incurred by the schools sending pupils would probably be from four to six dollars per week for each pupil. Any school desiring to take part should make early application. Besides the living exhibit, schools wishing to show classroom work and shop work could do so, such exhibits being placed as far as possible in swinging wall-cabinets in order to economize space.

In answer to inquiries from Mr. R. O. JOHNSON, Mr. J. W. DOBYNS and others, President GALLAUDET and Mr. POPE gave further details, and said that a circular stating full particulars would be issued in the autumn.

Dr. CROUTER announced that Mr. R. O. JOHNSON, Mr. A. E. GRUVER and Mr. EDMUND LYON had been appointed a Committee of the Association to co-operate with the Committee of the Convention in the Exhibit at St. Louis.

Miss CAROLINE A. YALE, from the Committee on a proposed Summer School, submitted a report which gave in detail the carefully prepared plan for a Summer School adopted by the Board of Directors more than a year ago.

Inasmuch as the plan was not carried out on account of the small number of applications for membership, and as it will probably receive considerable modification at the hands of the Board before a Summer School is again announced, it is not deemed advisable to print it until a full and final determination of the whole question has been reached.

Dr. CROUTER announced the election of Mr. ELBERT A. GRUVER as a director of the Association in the place of Dr. J. C. Gordon, deceased.

Miss SARAH FULLER, Chairman of the Committee on Necrology, announced the death since the last meeting of Miss Antonia B. Hopeman, of Rochester, New York, Mrs. Gilbert O. Fay, of Hartford, Connecticut, and Dr. Joseph C. Gordon, of Jacksonville, Illinois.

A resolution of thanks to Miss Fuller for the use of the Horace Mann School and other courtesies was adopted by a rising vote.

On motion of Mrs. CORNELIA S. CRANE, it was voted to send messages to Dr. Bell and Mr. Booth expressing regret at their absence and good wishes for their restoration to health.

The meeting then adjourned.

E. A. F.

A PLEA FOR THE CHILDREN.

THERE is a book of Charles Reade's which is better worth a place on a teacher's book-shelf than many a treatise on Pedagogy. *Put Yourself in His Place* is the name of it, and the hero, the real hero, is a man who goes through life solving other people's problems and straightening out matters generally by doing just that—putting himself in the place of the person who is in difficulty.

It has been the fortune of the writer during the past few years to be a pupil as well as a teacher, attending, two or

three days in every week, courses at a neighboring university, "recitation courses," "lecture courses," and "thesis courses," as they are designated locally according to the dominant feature of each. These courses have had more or less bearing upon school work, in some cases direct and in others somewhat remote; but upon the whole the getting back to the attitude of the learner has been the most valuable part of the experience. All teachers are constant students, theoretically at least, and most teachers of the deaf are probably as a matter of fact, but it is not exactly the *student* attitude of mind that is meant when the words "the attitude of the learner" are used. The adult student who reads to broaden himself along certain lines does so from choice not only in the beginning but from choice each day he pursues his study. He omits what has no bearing upon his particular interest, he takes sides if the subject-matter is controversial, and he suits the amount of work to his own inclination.

The teacher admitted as a special student at a university, on the contrary, must do definite work at a definite time or take the consequences, loss of credit and loss of hard-earned money. In a recitation course ignorance of an assigned subject means failure, not so very unlike the failure of the elementary school; a thesis course presents an excellent opportunity for finding out how keenly well directed sarcasm can cut; and a lecture course has possibilities in the way of boredom, when the instructor is ill-prepared or dull, which are simply appalling. But, on the other hand, a successful recitation, a thesis returned with a commendatory endorsement, or a lecture of absorbing interest—any or all of these induce a state of mind in the presence of which all difficulties dwindle and future success becomes inevitable.

An honest endeavor to put herself in the place of each and every one of the five-, six-, seven-, and eight-year-old

pupils who come each day under her care, an endeavor brought about in the first instance by experiences both pleasant and the contrary in college, has led the writer to look at the every-day work of the classroom from a new point of view.

Any lesson which requires young children to *do* something frequently is pretty sure to be an interesting lesson. Watching somebody else do is better than nothing, but it is by no means so fascinating as doing one's self. Any one who has ever taken part in theatricals or spoken at meetings or responded to toasts will acknowledge, if he is honest, how absorbing the programme becomes about the time his turn approaches; or if he doesn't quite want to acknowledge it now, he will acknowledge that it used to be so, when he was young and his career was just beginning. Well! our small six- and seven- year-old children are young, their careers are just beginning; and so it is but natural for them to desire a leading part in each hour's drama. Of course they cannot always have a leading part; often and often, under the wisest management, they must wait their cue during periods of inactivity which to them must seem long indeed, while the teacher drills some individual for minutes together—but it is safe to say that the lesson which provides the largest amount of employment for the greatest number of children is the lesson which the pupils will most enjoy. Lessons which require constant attention from nine pupils to the recitation of a tenth or to the instruction of the teacher throughout a lesson-period must be very trying to little children, even when careful discipline has done away with almost every outward sign of restlessness. Those of us who attend the Convention and Association meetings in the summer, and local Teachers' Conventions and Conferences during term time, often find our self-control and our sense of courtesy taxed to their very limit as our attention is required hour

plish much along this line, but it is by no means the end in view. Language is not taught that pupils may become poets or orators, or mathematics that they may become expert book-keepers. Drawing also must be considered educational and practical.

We want to develop the power of appreciating form and color in the products of nature and of man, and the power of expressing or creating in terms of form and color. Drawing is an indispensable factor in our modern education, as it is in the first place the starting point of all useful and beautiful things made by man. Every contrivance for the transportation and comfort of humanity is first put on paper. Beyond this is the pictorial art, which is the means and the result combined and the constant source of pleasure to thousands.

How much more interesting many studies are when drawing is systematically used! Geography is perhaps the study best liked by children, and I think the greater part of its popularity is due to the map drawing and the illustrations frequently made of the descriptive part. Botany, Zoology, and mathematics can hardly be mastered without the ability to draw.

Drawing can also be used as an interpreter. A story can be told in a simple way. Many instances of this use can be seen on the funny pages of the Sunday papers. Its descriptive powers are limitless. Many times one wants to describe, say, a peculiar feature of a new dress. Words are totally deficient. A few strokes of the pencil will readily convey the idea.

Whatever the eye can see clearly the hand can be taught to produce on paper. If a child possesses a normal brain, a hand, and an eye which can detect the difference between two and six inches, there is no reason why this child cannot learn to show it.

But the majority of people do not know how to see.

I have never seen a new pupil who would not invariably draw the two faces of the cylinder. His doubt in the teacher is plainly shown when one is erased. Later, when the cube is studied and the first drawings are made and the instructor cruelly rubs out most of the twelve edges, leaving only the visible ones, small indeed is the sight of the ambitious young student. We have found out the secret. The little ones do not know how to see. They know that the cylinder actually possesses two faces and the cube twelve edges, and, as they are truthful little things, the whole truth must be shown or nothing. So while we are beginning to cultivate the artistic nature of the child, we are doing a little sermonizing, so to speak, preventing him from drawing what he does not see or from telling what he does not know.

With the deaf it is especially important that as much as possible be made of the sense of sight, and that the powers of observation be cultivated to the very highest degree, for much profit as well as pleasure will be obtained.

Nearly all children love to draw except in a drawing-book, and I have never seen one who did not cordially hate the very name.

In order to keep the children always interested, and thus to accomplish the most and secure the best results, the work should be varied. Form is being taught whether the work is with white or colored crayon, pencil or charcoal, ink-washes or painting, clay-modelling or paper-cutting.

In selecting the models from which they copy great care should be taken to secure beautiful shapes and colors. Drawing can be taught, not only as well but better, from lovely things. Old shoes, worn-out brooms, and bent dust-pans are fine in their places, but they are not interesting as art studies and they are certainly not beautiful. Surely by seeing constantly around them well shaped artistically colored objects the children cannot but be influenced.

Everybody has some appreciation of the beautiful, but many outgrow it, for people will put up ugly things where beautiful ones might stand. The mile after mile of brown-stone houses in the large cities represent quantities of money. If the owners had any eye for beauty surely they would have spent the money in erecting more beautiful dwellings.

Going from Detroit to New York city, almost the entire country is ruined by the great advertisements on the barns and fences, and the placards with the silhouetted portraits of patent medicines and powders. Even the beauty of the Hudson is spoiled by this method of advertising wares. By training children up to a real love for beauty the whole country will be improved, for any person with real taste would never allow property to be defaced as it is in the above instances.

The children should be shown copies of famous pictures, the good points should be studied, and the motives of the artists in painting them should be learned. All of this cannot of course be taught in the lower grades.

The very best development of the artistic power depends largely on the control and education of the imagination and of the memory. A small child thinks all things are easy and fears nothing. A first-grade pupil will on request draw a cow or a pig without a moment's hesitation. His brow will be puckered and soon on the paper a wonderful animal appears. Solving it puzzles the teacher much more than its construction did the artist. But the next time the child sees a cow or a pig he will unconsciously notice it carefully and the mind will retain a clear impression of its peculiarities. Stories told to older pupils are the foundation of creditable illustration.

One cannot but be fearfully discouraged with the results of this part of the work at times, but all will surely take heart again when they read the following experience of an

art teacher in a hearing school. She read the "Old Oaken Bucket" to a class of young children, and asked for illustrations. The picture which pleased her most was one with three circles and numerous spots dotted around on the paper. On inquiry it came out that the first circle was the old oaken bucket, the second the iron-bound bucket, the third the moss-covered bucket, and the dots were the "loved spots that my infancy knew."

Artistically speaking the work in the first five grades is of no value, but educationally it cannot be overestimated.

Let us then say that the object of teaching art to school children is:

To develop the power to obtain keener perceptions of the beauties of nature and of man.

To develop the power to produce beautiful things.

To develop the ability to portray on paper things which can better be presented to the mind through the eye than by words.

In order to accomplish these ends we must—

1st. Arouse the interest of the child.

2d. Train the eye.

3d. Train the hand.

4th. Cultivate the imagination.

5th. Train the memory.

6th. Require children to use judgment.

7th. Require them to have confidence in themselves.

8th. Cultivate in them a love for the beautiful.

MARY BORLAND BEATTIE,
*Teacher of Art in the First Five Grades of the
Michigan School, Flint, Michigan.*

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama School.—Miss Enfield Joiner, of the Pennsylvania Institution, has been added to the corps of instructors, and Miss Annie Johnson has been given a year's leave of absence.

American School.—Dr. Williams has returned to his post of duty very much improved in health.

California Institution.—An unfortunate accident befell Mr. Charles S. Perry a day or two before school closed last summer. He was run into by a boy on a bicycle and his leg was broken just below the hip socket. Mr. Perry spent the summer in a hospital, but expected to resume his class in September. It is hoped that no permanent ill effects will follow his accident.

Colorado School.—Miss Haupt has a year's leave of absence, which she is passing in Europe. Her place is supplied by Miss Jennie Lee of the Kentucky School.

Evansville Day-School.—The School was closed May 15, 1903, on account of the lack of financial support.

Gallaudet College.—At the last commencement the following degrees were conferred in course: *Master of Arts*: James William Sowell, B. A., a graduate of this College and a teacher in the Maryland School for Colored Deaf and Blind, and Herbert H. Acheson, B. A., Paul Martin, B. A., and Elizabeth Pinckney Hill, M. A., Normal Fellows; *Bachelor of Arts*: Edith Mansford Fitzgerald, Ida Pearl Brooks, Gilbert Oscar Erickson, Anna Lavinia MacPhail, Margaret Hutchinson, Margaret Hauberg, Benjamin Scott Foreman, Letitia Roxy Webster, Robert Cook Hemstreet, Ivy Josephine Myers, and Marion Ethel Ritchie; *Bachelor of Science*: George Frederick Flick and Victor Rodhner Spence; *Bachelor of Philosophy*: Marion Ethel Ritchie, Frank August Johnson, Adam Sproat Hewetson,

Ernest Robinson Cowley, and Peter Thomas Hughes: *Bachelor of Letters*: Robert Craton Miller. Miss Clara C. Taliaferro and Miss Elizabeth F. Freeman received Normal certificates.

A young Corean, named Kim, is to be a member of the Normal Class this year.

Mr. Daniel C. Picard, a graduate of this College in 1899, who took a post graduate course in 1900, was graduated this year from the Massachusetts School of Technology with honors. His specialty is chemistry.

Gallaudet School.—Miss Sara F. Small, teacher of articulation for the past two years, has resigned to be married.

Horace Mann School.—Mrs. Sarah A. J. Monroe, who went abroad in June to study with teachers of voice culture, has leave of absence for the month of September in order to continue her studies.

Illinois School.—Mr. Charles P. Gillett, who has been Acting Superintendent since Dr. Gordon's death, has been elected Superintendent. The following teachers have resigned: Miss Lucy Lee Bell, to teach in the Kentucky School; Mrs. Cora Richards, retiring from the work; Miss Cynthia Luttrell, to be married; Miss Henrietta Adams, to teach in the public schools of Springfield, Illinois; and Mr. R. S. Wambold, instructor in physical culture. Appointments have been made as follows: Miss Grace Taft, who taught here formerly, but last year in the Perkins Institution for the Blind; Miss Hettie I. Patterson, for several years Dr. Philip G. Gillett's secretary at this Institution, and later for nine years teacher in the Louisiana School; and Mr. W. H. Clifford, reappointed as editor of the *New Era* and foreman of the printing office, having resigned during the last term on account of ill health.

A new chapel, studio, and library building is to be erected in the rear of the present school building and connected by a forty-foot corridor. The present plant of seven boilers will be supplanted by six new ones of larger capacity

and the present electric plant of two direct connected engines and dynamos of 30 and 20 kilowatt capacity will be supplanted by two direct connected engines and dynamos of 75 kilowatt capacity each.

Iowa School.—Miss Mabel MacDill and Miss Cora B. Satterley have resigned to engage in public school or private work. Miss Lizzie B. Kellogg, of the Indiana School, and Miss S. Pierre Baker, of the Missouri School, have been appointed to fill the vacancies.

Mr. R. D. Hoyt, for several years a teacher in this School, died during the month of July at Las Vegas, New Mexico, where he was temporarily sojourning for his health.

Mr. Rothert, in his report to the Board of Control, asks for an appropriation sufficient to erect seven two-story detached fire-proof buildings, viz., an administration building, a girl's dormitory, a boys' dormitory, a hospital, a small pupils' cottage, a chapel, and a pupils' dining-room. The probable cost will be \$400,000.

Kansas School.—Miss Margaret Naughton has resigned to be married. Mr. E. H. McIlvain, formerly from Ohio, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Kansas expects to be represented in the "living exhibit" at the Saint Louis Exposition, and to have a good display of manufactured articles.

Kendall School.—Mrs. Albert C. Gaw, formerly Miss Anna Spears, of the Pennsylvania, Missouri, and Minnesota Schools, and Miss Clara C. Taliaferro, a Normal student of Gallaudet College last year, have been added to the corps of teachers.

Kentucky School.—Miss Lucy Bell, late a teacher in the Illinois School, has been appointed to a position in the Oral Department. Miss Jennie Lee is granted a leave of absence to teach one year in the Colorado School. Miss Lucile Cooper, of Stanford, Kentucky, is appointed to fill the vacancy during Miss Lee's absence.

The new steam plant and laundry building is about

completed and will be ready by the opening of school, September 16. Work on the two new dormitories is progressing slowly and they will not be ready for occupancy before February. These two new buildings will accommodate one hundred and twenty pupils and give ten additional schoolrooms, which will greatly relieve the present crowded condition of the School.

Manchester (England) School.—Mr. William Nelson, head master, visited American schools for the deaf in May.

Minnesota School.—Dr. Alice J. Mott and Miss Lois Walker have resigned, and Miss Linda DeMotte, of the Michigan School, and Miss Ernestine Jastremski, of the Louisiana Institution, have been employed to teach.

The deaf people of the State have showed their appreciation of Judge Mott's forty years of service as Director of the School by presenting him with a large silver plate bearing the inscription, "A token of love and honor from the deaf of Minnesota." More than three hundred and fifty former pupils of the School joined in this tribute of gratitude.

An addition has been made to the cabinet shop during the summer vacation. The new school building is under process of construction. It is to be completed January 1. It will be built of stone, and hence will correspond with the other buildings. Only half the appropriation asked for the purpose was given, so it is only half as large as needed.

Mississippi Institution.—Miss McWillie, who has been librarian for the past four years, has resigned to be married.

Montana School.—Miss Carrie R. Stinson, a teacher in the Oral Department for the past three years, has resigned. She is succeeded by Miss Emily E. Sauter, formerly of the Illinois and Minnesota Schools.

A new power-house and laundry 63 x 40 is in the course of erection. The motive power for the machinery has been changed to steam, and a new fifty-horse engine and a dynamo capable of generating 500 lights have been purchased.

Nebraska School.—Mr. Waldo K. Rothert has been granted a year's leave of absence on account of poor health, and Miss Laura Robie does not return. Miss Jeannette Poole, of Council Bluffs, Iowa, is appointed a teacher in the Primary Department, and Miss Evelyn Humphreys, of Fulton, Missouri, and Miss Nannie C. Orr, of the Oregon School, are appointed teachers in the Primary Oral Department.

New South Wales Institution.—Mr. Samuel Watson, Principal, visited British and American schools for the deaf in May and June this year. Mr. Watson, while in America, wrote for the *Annals* an article on Australian schools for the deaf, which we hope to publish in the next number.

New York Institution.—Miss Katherine L. George and Miss Mabel B. Wells of the Kindergarten Department have resigned to be married. These vacancies have been filled by the appointment of Miss Elizabeth T. Green and Miss Edith A. Hillman, both from the Rhode Island School.

Extensive alterations have been made in the school building, consisting of two interior fire-proof stairways, which take the place of wooden stairways, and the erection at the north and south ends of the building of iron fire-escape verandas. The cost of these improvements was \$18,890.

North Dakota School.—Miss Lella Dedman has resigned and Miss Margaret J. Spencer, of the Indiana Institution, takes her place. Mr. W. S. Runde, B. A., a graduate of the California Institution and of Gallaudet College, is added to the corps of instruction.

About \$20,000 have been expended the past summer in improvements.

Oregon School.—Mrs. Lottie K. Clarke has charge of the oral work and teaches the beginning class this year. Miss S. V. Michaels teaches the intermediate class. Miss Nellie B. Cobb leaves the work to take charge of a home of her own. Miss Mabelle Crawford expects to teach elocution

in Walla Walla, Oregon. Classes in harness work, shoemaking and cooking have been begun.

Paris Institution.—Mr. Désiré Giraud, Director of the National Institution at Paris since 1898, died in April, 1903, aged fifty.

Mr. Giraud, as has been the unwise custom in France for the past quarter of a century, was appointed Director of the National Institution without any previous acquaintance with the deaf. Ever since completing his education, however, he had been connected with the government in various capacities, and had shown such energy, faithfulness, and executive ability that he had been promoted rapidly from one position to another. During the five years that he was at the head of the National Institution he proved himself by far the best Director that the Institution has had since the present system of appointment has been in vogue—that is, since the retirement of Léon Vaïsse. Numerous reforms characterized his administration. The age of admission was reduced to six years, the number of pupils was increased by one-third, women were appointed to take charge of the young children, the position of the instructors was advanced, air and light were admitted to the class-rooms, the workshops were enlarged and improved, and the *Revue générale* was established. Other reforms that he had planned have been interrupted by his death. While carrying out all these changes with decision and vigor he at the same time gained and retained the sincere affection of pupils and teachers.

Prevented alike by his own sense of dignity and by the command of his superior officer from taking any part in the International Congress of 1900, Mr. Giraud did all in his power to make the visit of the foreign delegates agreeable and profitable. By his courteous hospitality, the breadth and earnestness of his views, and his devotion to the work, he won their friendship and esteem, so that in other countries, as well as in France, his death is lamented and his memory cherished.

Mr. Victor Collignon, formerly Sub-Prefect of Saint Malo, has been appointed Director of the National Institution in place of Mr. Giraud.

Pennsylvania Institution.—The following resignations occurred at the close of the last term: Miss Mary E. Tuttle, to be married; Miss Enfield Joiner, to teach in the Alabama School; Miss Louisa T. Young, to engage in private teaching in Montreal, Canada; and Miss Mattie F. Metcalf, to secure needed change and rest. To fill their places Miss Stella Stewart, formerly of the Iowa School, more recently of the Clarke School Normal Class; Miss Martha C. Bell, of the North Carolina School; Miss Elizabeth Lyle, of the Clarke School Normal Class; and Miss Maud C. Williams, formerly of the Scranton School, more recently engaged in private work in Savannah, Georgia, have been appointed.

A large cylinder press has been added to the printing department; a much larger dining-room has been fitted up for the use of officers and teachers in Wissinoming Hall, and a large steel hot-water boiler placed in position in the subbasement of Wingohocking Hall.

Rotterdam Institution.—Mr. A. F. Fehmers, formerly Assistant Director, has been appointed Director and Secretary in place of Mr. I. C. Bikkers, whose death was mentioned in the last number of the *Annals*.

The Institution celebrated its fiftieth anniversary May 23. A marble bust of Dr. Hirsch, the founder of the Institution was dedicated, and an address was delivered by Mr. E. Polano, the first pupil.

South Dakota School.—Mr. James Simpson, who has been Superintendent of this School since 1881, the second year of its establishment, has resigned the position in order to give his whole time to the business of stock raising. Under his management the School grew from five pupils taught in a private dwelling to fifty pupils with ample grounds and fine buildings.

Miss Dora Donald, Superintendent of the South Dakota School for the Blind, known to many readers of

the *Annals* as the teacher of Linnie Haguewood, has been appointed Superintendent in Mr. Simpson's place.

Tennessee School.—The following teachers have resigned to retire from the work: Miss Rosa R. Harris, who is now residing in Parkersburg, West Virginia; Mrs. Rilla L. Bartle, who will make her future home in California; and Miss Jane Lee, who became the wife of Mr. Thomas L. Moses, Superintendent of the Tennessee School, on July 22, at her home near Maysville, Kentucky. Miss Alice Applewhite, formerly of the Mississippi and Washington Schools, and Miss Mary McCallum have been added to the corps of teachers.

During the summer extensive general repairs were made, including the enlargement of the dining-room. A small boys' cottage, to cost \$8,500, is now being erected.

Texas School.—The following additional teachers have been appointed: Mr. Paul Martin, M. A., a Normal Fellow of Gallaudet College; Miss Lettie R. Webster, R. A., a graduate of this School and of Gallaudet College; Miss Sudie Hancock, Miss Mamie Heflybower, and Mr. W. R. Parker, of Texas, who have taken special instruction. Mrs. E. Moore Barrett has severed her connection with the School as teacher of the deaf-blind to engage in other pursuits. Her daughter, Miss Bierne Barrett, assisted by Miss Heflybower, will have charge of the deaf-blind children.

Tokyo School.—A "Short Account of the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School," recently published, contains an interesting history and description of the School and also some valuable statistics.

With respect to the difficulties with which the teachers of the deaf in Japan have to contend, this statement is made:

The Japanese characters in daily use are derived from the Chinese, one character constituting one word. Each character has more than one sound, with different meanings. In writing, also, there is more than one style, so that it would be exceedingly difficult to learn articulation by means of these characters, especially for those who solely

depend on the power of sight. Moreover, there is a great difference between the written and spoken languages, and also between the epistolary style and those of daily newspapers, historical records, essays, etc. Such is the difficulty which could not be imagined by educators both in Europe and America, and the literary efforts to be made by the Japanese teachers and pupils must necessarily be twice as severe as is the case in Western countries."

Of 178 deaf pupils 69 are reported as congenitally deaf. Of these more than half were born of consanguineous parents and many of the adventitiously deaf are also children of consanguineous parents. The most frequently assigned cause of adventitious deafness is "meningitis," and the next is "acute spasm of children."

Statistics of the earnings of former pupils are given, from which it appears that in Japan, unlike Western countries, the occupations of the blind are much more remunerative than those of the deaf. Some of the blind, who practice koto-playing, acupuncture, and massage, earn from \$42 to \$60 a month, while the highest earnings of the deaf, whose employments are drawing, carving, and joinery, are from \$15 to \$17 a month.

There are now seven schools for the deaf in Japan. They are at Kyoto, Tokyo, Nagasaki, Toyohashi, Sadohara, Osaka, and Ken of Miyagi.

Utah School.—Max W. Woodbury, a graduate of the University of Utah, has been added to the teaching force. Mrs. E. B. Nelson, formerly Miss Marie L. Smith, a teacher of this school, formerly of the Rhode Island School, died of consumption at the home of her parents in Ellsworth, Maine, May 3, 1903.

The Annex building has been remodelled so as to give separate quarters to the blind children; a new heating plant with a separate building has been introduced, and a large gymnasium and shop building have been erected. The cost of these improvements is \$20,000.

Virginia School. Miss G. M. Chidester was married last June. Her place is filled by Miss Nellie Bumgardner, who prepared herself for the work at this school and also took

a course under Miss Lina Hendershot of the Pennsylvania Institution.

The Rev. Job Turner, long a teacher in this Institution, and widely known to the deaf of America and their friends as a minister of the Protestant Episcopal Church, died of Bright's disease at the home of his son, Mountville, Virginia, May 19, 1903, aged 83. Mr. Turner was born at Boston, Massachusetts, October 19, 1820. He entered the American School at Hartford in 1833. After six years' instruction he was appointed a teacher in the Virginia Institution on its establishment in 1839, and taught there continuously for thirty-five years, resigning finally on account of poor health. When his health was restored he studied for the ministry and was ordained and commissioned as missionary to the deaf of the Southern States in 1880. In 1844 he was married to Mary James, a graduate of the Virginia Institution, who died in 1873. He had two children, Dr. E. Loring Turner and Mr. Charles W. S. Turner, both of whom became teachers of the deaf first in the Virginia and afterwards in the Texas School.

Mr. Turner was an excellent specimen of the thorough practical education given by the American School at Hartford in its early days. Born deaf and in school only six years, he acquired such a command of language as to understand and use it readily; he was fond of reading, and though not speaking or reading the lips at all, mingled freely in general society with pleasure to himself and others. He enjoyed the acquaintance and friendship of many men prominent in the church, politics, and literature, and had interesting stories to tell of distinguished statesmen whom he had known in former days. Reverent, dignified, and courteous, he was also genial and cheerful, and had a keen sense of humor. His physical strength in his old age was remarkable. He pursued his long and difficult missionary journeys year after year apparently without fatigue, until on one of them he was stricken with the illness that proved fatal.

A new building, named Montague Hall for the Governor of Virginia, has been erected.

Washington Heights School.—Mrs. Margulies and Mrs. Anderson have dissolved partnership. Mrs. Margulies now conducts the “Reno Margulies School for Children with Defective Hearing,” at No. 534 West 187th Street, New York, and Mrs. Anderson “The Washington Heights School for Children with Defective Hearing,” at No. 847 St. Nicholas Avenue, New York.

West Virginia School.—Mr. Charles D. Seaton, B. A., formerly of the North Dakota School, has been appointed a teacher.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Mr. Linnaeus Roberts has resigned his position as teacher to enter another field of labor. His place has been supplied by Mr. S. Cecil Austin, of the West Virginia School. Miss Edith B. Pyle has resigned to be married, and Miss Minnie M. Turner, of the Illinois School, has been appointed her successor. Mr. Herbert W. Acheson, a Normal Fellow of Gallaudet College, has been added to the corps of instructors.

Wisconsin School.—Miss Gussie Howe Greener, M. A., late of the Rhinelander Day-School, and Miss Edith Fitzgerald, B. A., a recent graduate of Gallaudet College, have been added to the corps of instructors.

Wright Oral School.—The School has been removed to No. 1 Mt. Morris Park, New York City, facing the park.

THE DEAF-MUTE.

Oh! thou hast music in thy soul,
Yet music cannot reach thee;
Thou dreamest not of melting tone,
And these we cannot teach thee.
No gush of rich symphonious sound
Can wake thy joy or sadness;
All is a calm, devoid of sound,
No voice to tell of gladness.

The Deaf-Mute.

And yet, young creature, thou art blest
With soul sincere and true ;
And joy and love are in thy ways,
Thou lov'st the bright and new,
Thou lov'st the lilies' spotless bloom,
The rose's fragrant splendor ;
The gentle Spring doth bring to thee
Her flowers young and tender.

The Summer with her glowing sun
Her nectar'd product yields ;
The harvest is before thine eyes,
And bless'd the farmer's fields.
The Autumn too hath dreams for thee ;
The sear and yellow leaf
Doth show the ceaseless round of time,
Who passeth like a thief.

The seasons with their changes bring
Delights forever new,
And frosty Winter's frozen pearls
Are pleasing to thy view ;
And when the sparkling fields do gleam,
In their white robes arrayed,
Thou canst enjoy the frigid scene
That nature has displayed.

But yet no bloom of early Spring,
Or Summer's pleasant day,
Or Autumn in her russet brown,
Or Winter cold and gray,
Can recompense the loss of sound ;
No verbal tongue is thine,
Nor words of love or tenderness
With thy sweet smiles combine.

Yet thou hast thine own eloquence,
Express'd by sign or look ;
Intelligence is in thy reach,
In Nature's open book.
And well hast thou its pages scan'd,
Though speech is not for thee :
Yet thought is thine—its ample scope
May pierce eternity.

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MORAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PUPILS.

Children are the to-morrow of society.

—*Whately.*

THE following paper is the fourth, and last, of the series on Child Study, as pursued by the Teachers' Association of the Minnesota School for the Deaf during the two school terms 1901-2 and 1902-3. The first paper appeared in the *Annals* for September, 1902; the second, in the issue of January, 1903; the third, in the issue of May, 1903. The first and second papers treated of Physical Characteristics; the third, of Mental Characteristics.

No branch of Child Study is more interesting or of more real value than that which concerns the moral nature of children, and especially is this true in the case of deaf children. Physical and mental characteristics relate only to this comparatively brief earthly existence, and end with it; moral characteristics not only have the most important bearing on this life, but extend into eternity.

A child that, by reason of natural causes or from lack of proper care and training, grows up physically deficient, cannot achieve that success or occupy that sphere of usefulness in society which is open to one whose physical nature is near perfection. The same may be said of the

mental nature. But still a child that, whether it be from natural lack or from fault in care and training, grows to adult years physically and mentally inferior to the average of humanity, may live out its life in a negative sort of way, at least without evil influence on society, provided that the moral nature has been trained in the way of right. But any human being with a perverted moral nature, no matter what the physical and mental conditions are, will be a curse to society, an influence for evil whose limits no man can determine. And the more nearly the physical and mental nature of such a person approaches perfection, the greater becomes that influence for evil. An evilly disposed person, physically unattractive and mentally dull, can do comparatively little harm among his fellow-beings by the side of one similarly disposed morally, but with physical and mental qualifications of such a high order as to attract and dominate others.

Therefore it is obvious that a careful study of the moral instincts and tendencies of children is the highest duty of all upon whom the training of the young devolves, to the end that these instincts and tendencies may be guided in the ways of right. This duty rests more heavily upon instructors of deaf children than upon any others. Deaf children come to school at an early age with their moral natures practically unformed. Whatever of instincts and tendencies they may have in the direction of morality are vague and imperfect. Home influences have done little or nothing. Warning looks and gestures, and possibly punishments, may have taught some deaf children that they must or must not do this or that. But in too many cases young deaf children at home are petted and favored on account of their affliction, and well-merited punishment is withheld out of misjudging tenderness of heart. The result is that the task of the teacher who first takes such children in hand is made even more difficult. Months are often

spent in merely teaching these children that they must submit to order and discipline, and meanwhile they make little or no mental development.

The school life of deaf children extends through the period most formative of mind and character—from six or eight to sixteen or eighteen years of age. For nine months of every year these children are subject to the example and precept of the officers and teachers of the school, and are exposed to constant association with many other children, older or younger than themselves. The school is the workshop where their characters are forged and formed, and the instructors in the schoolrooms and shops, who have the children under their immediate direction for longer periods every day than any one else, have the greatest responsibility in the important work.

The discussion of the moral characteristics of pupils by the teachers of the Minnesota School for the Deaf covered the period of two meetings of their Association. At the meeting in March, 1903, cases and incidents illustrating various moral and religious instincts, ideas, and traits of deaf children of all ages and conditions were presented and discussed. At the following meeting in April a number of the teachers gave their views as to ways and means for overcoming wrong moral tendencies and inculcating right principles.

I. MORAL AND RELIGIOUS INSTINCTS OF DEAF CHILDREN.

CASES ILLUSTRATING THE PRESENCE OR ABSENCE OF MORAL AND RELIGIOUS QUALITIES.

One of the most interesting phases of this investigation is the inquiry regarding the moral and religious ideas of deaf children previous to the beginning of their education. It is an inquiry attended with some difficulty, as the state-

ments of the younger children cannot be fully relied upon, and in the case of the older and more intelligent, who are capable of analyzing their early impressions, the memory of those impressions is too often vague and indistinct. Only a few data of this nature were presented by the teachers, but the writer has gathered a few which may be regarded as reliable.

In general, it may be stated that uneducated deaf children, as far as the inquiry goes, regard the sun, moon, stars, thunder, lightning, and other forces of nature, as manifestations of some unseen power. In other words, if they have any idea of a Supreme Being, it is connected with the above-mentioned objects and forces. This fact ought to be of interest to anthropologists, inasmuch as it is in accord with the known fact that the primitive races, with hardly an exception, directed their first worship to the sun, moon, stars, fire, and other agents and forces of nature.

One boy's idea of the sun was that it moved through the sky during the day, and at night it was carried around beneath the horizon to rise again in the east.

Most of those questioned thought that the clouds were smoke.

One accounted for thunder by supposing that some one was firing off cannon up in the sky. Another thought wagons were rolling around. But the strangest theory about the thunder was that given by one who was only partly deaf, and often heard his father's voice raised in anger. He thought that the thunder was some person up in the sky speaking angrily, and he ascribed the rain that usually followed to the tears of people up there who were frightened by the voice.

Inquiries were made as to ideas about Sunday and church-going. Few retained any distinct recollection of ideas on that point.

One girl, who lived in the country, thought Sunday was a

day set aside for farmers to go to town and get the mail and buy groceries.

Another knew that people were quiet, wore nice clothes, and went to church on Sunday, but had no idea what it was all about.

Another subject of inquiry was as to ideas of death. These were few and vague.

One thought that when the dead were buried they grew up to be trees.

Another had the idea that people who were buried reappeared on earth as babies, after growing smaller down in the ground.

Most of those questioned said that they had a sort of understanding as to right and wrong, stealing, lying, etc., but could not explain how they got it. They said they "felt" it.

One girl said that one day she saw some money in her mother's bureau drawer, and took it. By and by she felt so uncomfortable that she went and put it back, and then felt better. This would seem to be a case of innate conscience.

One boy said that he once stole some money from his mother. He did not have any consciousness of wrongdoing. But he was detected, and his mother talked to him with gestures. She made him understand that if he stole he could not go up (pointing to the sky), but would go down (pointing downward). He was so impressed that he never stole anything from her again.

One girl gave several instances of early moral and religious impressions that are rather interesting. One day, when quite small, she saw in a neighbor's yard a small cart-wheel lying alone. She wanted it, and felt tempted to climb over the fence and get it. But she felt it would be wrong, so she went away. The next day she went again, with the same result. The third or fourth time, she yielded

to temptation and stole the wheel. But she felt her fault so keenly that she hid the wheel away and never played with it. She wanted to put it back, but her pride prevented, as she could not contemplate the shame of being detected returning it. On another occasion she saw a pretty dress button lying on the floor. She knew what girl had lost it, but she took it and kept it. But she did not feel at ease for a long time after, whenever she met that girl. Once she had a sling-shot of rubber, such as boys use. One day she was playing with it, and took aim at a bird without thought. Much to her surprise the bird fell to the ground. She had killed it. She went up to it and took it in her hand. She stood looking at it, feeling an overpowering regret. She does not remember what she did with the bird, but she did not tell her mother about it, and never after could she bear the thought of killing any living creature. She did not understand what death was, but had a mortal fear of it, and was also terribly afraid of the dark. One night she wanted to go out of the house, and asked her mother to go with her. The latter did so. Behind the house was a steep hillside, covered with a thick growth of trees, vines, and underbrush. Her childish imagination had clothed this hillside with all sorts of savage animals. She thought of them now, but, strange to say, her fears were for her mother rather than for herself. Going back to the house, she actually put herself between the terrible hillside and her mother, with the feeling that she was protecting her mother from danger. This girl grew up to be one of the most conscientious, considerate, and faithful of women.

A few words here in regard to a much-mooted question, whether the qualities of honesty and truthfulness are innate or acquired. One of our teachers, who has had an extensive experience with very young children, both deaf and hearing, once remarked before our Association that steal-

ing and lying come natural to uneducated children; in less plain English that it is a natural instinct for the uneducated child to appropriate things that it wants and has opportunity to obtain, without regard to ownership, and to deny or prevaricate when it wishes to escape from the consequences of detection in a fault. Any one who has had much experience with very young children can recall much to support this view. But it is not proposed to enter into any discussion of it here. The question may be left to moralists and metaphysicians, who may continue to debate it until doomsday.

We will now consider the moral and religious characteristics of deaf children whose education has just begun, who have been in school but a few months, or one or two years at most.

One little boy, second year in school, asked his teacher if rain was caused by God passing around a sprinkling-pot.

One day the teacher of a rather backward class of second-year pupils was giving a talk about cruelty to animals, and made it quite impressive. A little fellow spoke up and said that birds were cruel, for he had seen them pulling worms to pieces.

On another occasion the same teacher was telling the class that God made everything. A little girl asked if God made the rats and mice. When told that He did, she looked puzzled for a moment, and then inquired, "Was God absent-minded?" implying that she considered the creation of those troublesome animals an error.

One of the little boys in that class was telling the teacher about a severe storm that destroyed crops and buildings and killed and wounded a few people near his home. He wound up by saying that God was to blame for it. His teacher tried to correct this impression in his little mind, but he persisted, saying, "If it was not God, who was it?"

One of the girls in the class, quite dull in intellect, lost

her mother just before Christmas. She cried as if heart-broken. Her teacher tried to comfort her, but she was inconsolable, saying over and over again that now she would not get any Christmas box, showing that the loss of the box was more in her mind than that of her mother.

One afternoon last spring the weather was very threatening. Black storm-clouds came rolling up in the west. All the schoolrooms were suddenly darkened. The children in the kindergarten manual class seemed frightened. Their teacher, in order to dispel their fear, assumed extra cheerfulness, and tried to amuse them and make them laugh. One little girl, only six months in school, maintained a very grave face, and informed the teacher that God would be angry if they laughed under such circumstances.

Several years ago two little boys, both under two years in school, got to squabbling in the chapel, just after the morning service was concluded. The one who got the worst of it complained to the Superintendent, whereupon the other little fellow said, "J—— is wicked. I asked him to forgive me and he would not."

One evening a little boy, during his first year at school, stole away to the institution root cellar, and with strangely vegetarian taste took therefrom a small bunch of horseradish. As he emerged from the cellar he saw the broad face of the full moon staring at him, with what his little conscience imagined was a detecting and accusing glance. He stood for a moment quaking, then put the stolen "fruit" back into the cellar, and took to his heels.

In one class of bright second-year pupils there are three or four who are afflicted with quick tempers, which flare up at the slightest provocation, and especially when corrections are made in their written work. One of them is a lovable little fellow, very ambitious to stand near the head of the class. The teacher has often taken pains to point

But the ugliness of ill temper and the beauty of self-control. One day this little fellow was standing by his teacher while she was reading over his slate. She found several mistakes and corrected them, expecting an outburst of temper to follow. Glancing at him, she saw him with flushed face, winking hard to keep back the tears, while saying to himself in signs, "I am improving in self-control."

The habit of copying, so prevalent among very young pupils, seems to imply the absence of a sense of rectitude and honesty. Some teachers are inclined to pay no attention to it during the first year, or to pass it over very lightly, on the ground that the moral natures of the children are not fitted to grasp the principle of honesty involved. On the whole, however, it is the better policy to discountenance the fault from the very beginning, showing the children that the teacher does not like it. It will then be easier for later teachers to overcome it. In this school very little trouble is experienced from copying in the more advanced classes, only isolated instances appearing. Most of the pupils appear to be above such a petty meanness.

The following cases and instances bearing on the subject of moral characteristics are drawn from classes more advanced, the pupils having been in school three or four years and upwards. It can be supposed that instruction and example have done more or less to develop their moral natures.

One day, in a class of fourth-year pupils, a bottle of ink was spilled. The teacher inquired who did it, but all denied. The teacher gave the class a serious talk, telling them that the spilling of the ink was a small matter, but the lie that one of them told was a real sin.

One pupil in the same class told the teacher that he could steal without being caught. He seemed to think that the objection to stealing lay mainly in the "being caught," which opinion is no doubt held by not a few older and more experienced than he.

Another boy would always deny a fault when he thought that there was no proof of his complicity, but if he suspected that it was known, he would confess.

One pupil writes his lesson neatly and carefully because he fears that he may be kept in at recess or after school. Another does the same because he knows it pleases the teacher. This shows the moral difference between the two.

In one of the intermediate classes there is a boy who was called home recently by the death of his father. After his return to school he told his classmates, with much excitement, what a good time he had had at the theatre the Sunday night before he came back. This boy will copy others' work in the classroom, and then deny it sturdily.

There was a rather bright boy in school not long ago, who seemed to lack any religious feeling, for he would scoff at the Bible, saying that there was one at home, but that the dust was an inch thick upon it. Such a case is rarely found in our school.

The most peculiar case of moral deformity that ever occurred in this school, in the memory of any one now connected with it, was that of a boy who was with us several years ago. He was undersized for his age, and had been at school for some time elsewhere, so we can disclaim responsibility for his present nature. The boy was the strangest mixture. He was extremely affectionate, and showed a tendency to cuddle up to everybody, especially to those from whom he had reason to fear punishment. He was very sensitive, and the tears would come for the slightest cause. He was quite ingenious with his hands, and could make all sorts of pretty patterns from paper. In flower time he would go out and bring in bouquets arranged with real taste. On the other hand, when flowers were not available, he would bring in the oddest and most repulsive things as an offering upon the altar of his affection for the time being. But he seemed to have absolutely no idea

of what truth and honesty meant. He would make the most solemn promises and then break them without a thought. He would appropriate things that did not belong to him, and show no shame when caught. He would run away to town and go from house to house, begging. All kinds of punishment were tried in vain. No one of the several teachers who had him under their hands could make any perceptible impression on his moral nature. When punished, he would bear no malice against the punisher, but would write nice little notes, expressing his sorrow, his determination to be good, protesting his love for the person addressed, and invariably saying, "I will pray for you." The teachers who had to do with him are unanimous in the opinion that they did need praying for. This boy is now at home, a pest to the community where he lives, and not infrequently in the hands of the law. He is an "incorrigible," if such a thing exists.

It is unavoidable that in a large school where so many boys and girls from all sorts and conditions of society are gathered together, there must occasionally develop pronounced cases of moral depravity. The worst the school has ever experienced are those of a few older boys who have set about to corrupt and contaminate younger ones. These, as soon as discovered, have been promptly removed from the school like plague-spots.

Several years ago there was a girl here who fell into a kind of religious mania, from what cause is not known. She read the Bible, talked about it, quoted it, and began to declare that she saw visions. She said that during the night Jesus appeared to her and fought against evil spirits that tried to seize her and bear her away. Her mania grew to such an extent that it was feared it might become dangerous, so she was sent home.

In one of the highest classes there is a young man of good mental ability, of correct habits, good manners, willing

and industrious, but afflicted with a quarrelsome disposition — that is continually getting him into trouble with other pupils — He realizes his fault, and tries to overcome it, but so far — it has proved to be too strong for him. Not long ago he — asked his teacher to write out a prayer for him, so that he — might commit it to memory and use it every day.

Another young man in the same class has a somewhat superficial character. He likes to “show off,” and frequently disregards the rule in relation to talking in the classroom. Yet he tries to be honorable about it, and puts down his own demerit marks for talking, with the result that he usually has the lowest mark in deportment each month.

The same class contains what may be called a “model young man.” His habits and conduct are those of a consistent Christian. He is a church-member, a Christian Endeavorer, and active in church work at home. As an illustration of the strictness of his religious convictions, there is a little incident at the expense of his teacher, who is himself an active church-member and worker. The young man was taking subscriptions for a religious society paper and asked his teacher to subscribe, which the latter did. Having no money in his pocket at the time, the teacher said that he would bring it in a day or so. The following Sunday morning the teacher recollected the matter, and having a dollar in his pocket, offered it to the young man. The latter, however, did not want to take it, and remarked, “I hope you will not take offense, but if it doesn't make any difference to you, I prefer not to take it to-day. You know we have to follow our conscience in such matters.” The teacher pocketed the dollar and handed it over the next day.

One of our teachers, of longer experience than any of the rest, cited a rather interesting case. There was a young boy in his class who was over-supplied with animal spirits,

and always seemed to be devising new forms of mischief and annoyance for his teacher. One day the teacher stood him on a chair with a bandage around his eyes and his hands tied behind him. After a while the boy signified a desire to quit. Being asked to promise that he would behave, he refused, saying, "Perhaps I shall break my promise." So he was left standing there the remainder of that school session and part of the next. He made frequent appeals to be let off, but always refused to promise to be good or try to be good, on the ground that he might break the promise. Finally the teacher gave in and let the boy go to his seat without promising. It has always been a question in that teacher's mind whether the boy really had conscientious scruples about promising, or used a moral principle to mask a native obstinacy.

The same teacher said that he had often noted among the older boys a lack of regard for their word. Once at the close of school one of them borrowed a small sum of money from the teacher, promising to send it as soon as he got home. All through the summer the teacher heard no word from the boy. But when school re-opened in the fall the boy came to him and handed him the money, without, however, one word of apology for the delay, or any evidence of consciousness that he had done anything wrong in failing to keep his word.

This teacher thinks that there is a lack of a fine sense of duty among many of the older pupils. It is shown in the use they make of club-room privileges, of study hour, in their care of library books, and in many other little ways. He has several times found club-room boys playing or talking in their rooms during study hour. They know that they are allowed club-room privileges as a mark of trust, and are, in a sense, put upon their honor to do right, but some of them lack that sense of duty that would lead them to live up to the trust. One Monday morning, upon in-

quiry, he found that nearly all the girls in his class, eleven in number, had spent the previous Friday evening study hour in reading or talking, though he had assigned them a regular lesson for study. They knew it was a fault, and frankly admitted it, but lacked the sense of duty to prevent it.

There is, at times, observed among the older boys and girls more or less indifference to religious matters. It is shown by inattention during chapel services. Some even go so far as to talk and laugh during prayers. It is further shown by the lack of interest in the Sunday lessons.

As a rule, the girls are more conscientious, more amenable to moral and religious influences than the boys.

The teacher of one of the advanced classes, consisting of seventeen pupils, asked the class to write down their ideas about God, in the form of a brief composition. The following extracts are made from these writings, which may be set over against the crude and vague ideas of the uneducated deaf, to show what they gain by several years of education:

When we die we shall go up somewhere into heaven, because God will make us live again, and we shall be forever happy.

We do not know how God got himself in heaven. Our lives are made by God. Our lives are given to us to make ourselves honest. When we are dead we shall meet God.

I believe that nobody in this earth knows all about God, and we do not know where God is and who made God. We hope we shall meet God and our relatives when we die.

We cannot see God unless we die. We cannot know really about him. He lives in a place where is always happiness. God can see us in hiding and in every place which is dark, and can see our consciences. God is near us everywhere. We know about God, because we read the Bible.

We do not know how God made his body first for himself. There are two earths for us and God. Is this true?

We don't understand how God knows when we shall die in the future.

We cannot know what God means. God is with every one. We often feel our consciences by the calling of God.

II. HOW CAN WE BEST DEVELOP AND TRAIN THE MORAL AND RELIGIOUS NATURES OF OUR PUPILS?

The teacher of a small class of backward first-year pupils said that nearly all her difficulties in the way of discipline were due to lack of proper home influences. Most of the children's faults can be ascribed either to lack of a sense of obedience or of self-control. These two must be inculcated from the first. One way to overcome certain faults in the children is to hold the faults before their eyes in all their repulsiveness. One little girl in the class had the fault of making horrid faces when she was displeased with any one. One day when she had done this, her teacher copied her and made an ugly face too. The little girl buried her face in her arms for a while, and after that made no more faces.

The teacher of one of the primary classes made the following remarks among others: "Three things rule the universe. They are work, love, and God. If we can create a desire to work, we have laid the corner stone to usefulness. . . . The child enters the institution without any object of his own. We must create an object. . . . It is one thing to teach, but it is another to train. Training is putting into practice the lessons taught. In teaching we sow the seed, in training the plant is nurtured until it is developed. . . . Teaching gives knowledge, training gives character. . . . Try to impress upon the child that he alone is responsible for his own daily conduct. . . . If the teacher wishes work, he must be a worker. If he wishes slovenly work, let him do slovenly work. How soon all work will fall to his own level! . . . The teacher should be firm in duty, yet kind and patient. Love is a greater power than might. Stories have a wonderful power. . . . Stories of an

ennobling nature, incidents which can be used to develop character, are of the greatest importance."

One of the lady teachers gave a reminiscence of excellent moral work done among the girls in this school several years ago: "At one time there were two societies in this school whose object was moral and religious improvement. . . . Two women of sterling character, Miss ——— and Mrs. ———, were actively interested in this work. No sacrifice was too great for these women if they could instil into the girls' minds a keen sense of duty and right principles of action. . . . The attitude of the members of this society was one of deep individual interest. The meetings were well attended, and the interest never lagged. . . . The difficulty came in teaching the girls how to apply right principles to each little act of every-day life. The remedy used most successfully by these ladies was to see the girls alone, to get their own ideas of any matter under discussion, then sweetly and patiently to set before them the right course of action, and try to induce them to follow their advice. The deaf are responsive when once they have loving confidence in a friend or teacher. . . . There is a question as to the justice of censure or punishment for sins of ignorance. I have had many pupils who were eager to do right as soon as they knew what was the right course. Their faulty judgments needed cultivating, while their motives were pure. . . . A good way to develop character is by actual interest in the individual lives of our pupils, and time devoted to such effort is never spent in vain."

Another of the lady teachers spoke in the same vein of society work among the boys, which she and two or three other teachers had undertaken a few years back, with excellent results. She also spoke in high terms of the influence exerted upon her class by a teacher of a most lovable and Christian character, who died a few years ago. The

Pupils of the class showed to a marked degree the value of such an influence upon young children.

One of the teachers, himself a graduate of the school, gave some of his early impressions, which are here given in part: "I find it rather difficult to point out the numerous causes which have had most to do in establishing the moral standard of the school. . . . But some of the greater influences which made a vivid impression upon me as a pupil seem to have been those which were the result of precept and example, and in our days there was not a man of greater force of character to regulate the moral conduct of the school than the Superintendent himself. Those of us who knew Dr. Noyes in the prime of his manhood and usefulness remember how powerful he was on the platform of our fourth-story chapel, and a look from him, whether he was in the chapel, or in the old tailoring apartments down in the basement, or in the old cooper shop, or anywhere else, made the refractory child feel uncomfortable and wish he had always been good. He was a good man himself, and he had a right to expect his boys and girls to live up to the rules of right conduct. There was nothing I dreaded more than to have a black mark opposite my name in the monitor's book, for it meant I would have to give the Superintendent an explanation in his office, with the possibility of spending the whole afternoon there. . . . I believed that most of the teachers we had in those bygone days were true Christians, and, as a rule, practiced what they preached. We all know that our preaching, whether in the chapel, school-room, or shop, is less effective in proportion as we omit the practice ourselves."

The teacher of one of the highest classes places the most importance in the development of character upon example: "A teacher cannot develop and train, successfully, qualities or traits in pupils that he himself does not

possess. With this assertion as a fundamental principle, it necessarily follows that if we would develop and train the moral and religious natures of our pupils, we must be moral and religious ourselves."

The teacher of the highest manual class, a graduate of the school, with an experience of eighteen years as a teacher, made the following remarks:

"The Chinese sage and moralist Confucius held that example was the one sure guide to morality; that if those in authority were good, those under them would be good as a matter of course. If Confucius were correct, then guardians and instructors of the young need only be what they want the children to be. But though example is much, it is not all. It is not uncommon for children of Christian parents, who have good examples before them daily, to go wrong. Teachers of the young have got to *do* as well as *be*, in order to train properly the moral natures of their charges. And the question is what it is best to do.

"Deaf children receive very little moral instruction at home; therefore the responsibility laid upon us is great.

"Moral instruction, to be effective, must be pleasing and interesting. Children should be led to admire the beauty of right-doing, rather than scared by the threatened results of evil-doing. More people can be led heavenward by picturing the beauties of the life celestial, than can be driven there by painting the horrors of the other place.

"If moral and religious instruction in our school is made too much of a task, the children will regard it with unpleasant feelings, and the aim we seek to attain will be lost.

"One of the most marked characteristics among the advanced pupils in the matter of Sunday-school work is the lack of interest that they show in it. The learning of the regular Sunday lesson is not compulsory, in the sense that there is a regular time fixed for study. Too many of the pupils

have a sense of duty in this matter, and make little effort to have good lessons, although they may be among the brightest and best pupils in every-day school work. In fact, during an experience of eighteen years I have found almost invariably that the brightest pupils in every-day work have been the poorest in Sunday work. In my present class there are two pupils who stand at the foot in scholarship, but who are the most conscientious and accurate in their Sunday work. This would seem to indicate that conscience is in direct ratio to dullness. Compulsory study would improve the lessons, no doubt, but would it improve the morals? I have appealed to their sense of duty time and again, but it does not appear to do much good.

"In one thing I think we are lacking, and that is in the matter of the various standard Bible stories. I think that we do not tell them often enough to the pupils, and do not require the pupils themselves to tell them in their own way. At times, when the regular Sunday lesson has been completed, I have asked my class questions relating to the familiar characters in the Old Testament. I have been amazed at the ignorance they have displayed concerning names and events that they have been told about recently in the chapel. The reason is that they have not been told often enough to make those things remembered. I think that every year of the deaf child's life, from the second to the end, Bible stories should form a part of the Sunday instruction, simple at first, and more elaborate with advancing grades.

"One thing that should give us all concern is the growing tendency among the deaf, especially in the cities, toward drinking, betting, and disregard of the Sabbath, which day they employ as a day for sport. We should give more thought to the teaching of temperance and regard for the Sabbath.

especially during the early years. All the little incidents illustrating the thoughts and feelings of the youngest pupils, as given in the first part of this paper, were given expression through the medium of signs. By no other means could deaf children, in the first and second years of their school life, express their thoughts so freely and fully ; nor could the teacher gain such an insight into the workings of their little minds and hearts. The teacher who has a clear and ready use of the sign-language has a power for developing and stimulating both the mental and moral natures of very young deaf children, that those who are hostile to, or ignorant of, the sign-language little realize. By means of familiar talks, little stories, leading questions, etc., the interest of the little ones may be aroused, their attention held, their ideas, thoughts, and feelings drawn forth, and an intimate understanding and relation may be established between teacher and pupil such as is impossible during those early years by means of any other known mode of communication. During an experience of twenty years as a teacher of deaf children, I have observed, time and again, how quickly young deaf children grasp ideas imparted through the medium of signs, how readily they learn to express themselves freely by means of them, and how easily their immature minds and hearts may be influenced in the right direction. We who believe so strongly in the proper use of the sign-language as an auxiliary in the education of the deaf might possibly resign ourselves to its disuse, under necessity, so far as the mere mental training of the children is concerned. But when we consider the great utility of this language of gestures in the development and training of the moral nature of very young children; when we consider that this training can be continued so well by no other means during their whole school life; when we consider that after our pupils leave school their moral and religious instruction is continued

"It is not so much what we teach or try to teach that influences our pupils as the little unconsidered habits and ways of our daily lives. They are always on the watch to see whether we practice what we preach. They notice, with and without intent, all the idiosyncrasies of our characters and ways. If we want them to be neat, orderly, punctual, truthful, honest, to be scrupulously so ourselves will have more weight and influence with them than all the preaching and teaching in the world.

"There is an old story about an Englishman who took his little son to see some workmen who were building a wall on his estate. He explained that there was to be an arch at a certain place, and the boy was greatly interested and expressed a strong desire to see how it would be made. The father promised him that he should. Some days later they went again to see how the work was getting on, and, behold, the arch was finished! 'Why, father,' said the boy, 'you promised that I should see the men build that arch.' The gentleman immediately ordered the men to tear down their work and build the arch over again while his son was looking on. The boy never forgot the lesson he thus learned about keeping one's word at any and all cost.

"We can never tell when what we do and say may not influence some one for good or ill. This need not make us feel that we are on parade all the time, and the feeling of responsibility ought neither to worry us nor to weigh us down. But we should keep it constantly in mind, and remember, above all, that the idea that what we are and what we do matters little or not at all to our pupils, is far from the right one."

I cannot bring this paper to a close without saying a few words concerning the utility of the sign-language in relation to the moral and religious training of deaf children,

man and woman is the result of early training and environment. Failure to build a strong and enduring character may result from evil influences during youth, lack of instruction, incompetent instruction, or from a wrong diagnosis of the case by instructors otherwise well qualified.

I recollect having read somewhere of a real or imaginary place where the teachers instead of the pupils were flogged when the little ones failed to come up to the standard. If such were the rule in this country, let us consider whether some of us teachers might not occasionally smart under the rod.

Teaching and training deaf children may be compared to the work of the sculptor. They are placed in our hands practically uneducated and unformed, like the block of marble as it comes from the quarries. There may be natural flaws in the block, which we cannot remove or conceal, corresponding to hereditary taints in the children, but—

“There’s the marble, there’s the chisel;
Take them, work them to thy will;
’Thou alone must shape *their* future—
Heaven give thee strength and skill.”

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TEACHING FROM OBJECTS.

ONE of the difficulties a young teacher of the deaf is sure to meet is a realization of the fact that the deaf child is barred from obtaining the large amount of information every hearing child has unconsciously absorbed long before entering school. One is apt to take it for granted that the child is familiar with much that he has really never had explained to him.

After repeated experiments I found that the names of

many articles used in the home were unknown to the children, though names of articles in the schoolrooms and the surroundings at school were perfectly familiar to them.

Pictures are an invaluable aid to the teacher of the deaf, but, in the primary grades, toy objects are preferred when they can be obtained. They appeal to the child's imagination and often give a clearer idea of the nouns taught.

The child lives in a world of imagination, and psychology teaches us that this is an important factor in the education of children. A live, thinking teacher will employ this love for imaginative play in the schoolroom.

Long thought on the subject brought me to the conclusion that the idea of teaching from objects might be used in a more extended form by making a model house and furnishing it with all the objects used in the home.

Desiring the idea to be as practical as possible, I had a cabinet made, six feet high, two feet wide, and one and one-half feet deep. This makes a convenient form for school-room use. Shelves divide the cabinet into four large rooms, with a drawer at the base to hold objects and pictures. The upper room is the bedroom, the parlor is underneath, the dining-room next, and the kitchen at the bottom. A large glass door in front keeps out dust and allows a clear view of the articles inside.

The resolution was also made that no cheap doll-furniture and nothing out of proportion or painted in gaudy colors should be put in the cabinet.

The first thing to do was to paper and carpet the new house. All colored wall-paper with large designs was rejected; a white paper, having the appearance of watered silk, was chosen. This was put on the walls; a narrow gold picture-moulding and an oak base were also used in each room.

A fine white matting was laid in the bedroom and dining-room; dark red Brussels carpet in the parlor; and oil-

cloth which looks like matched flooring was used for the kitchen.

Windows were made and placed in the different rooms. An imitation marble mantel, with a red brick fireplace containing small sticks of wood laid across old-fashioned andirons, gives a cosy appearance to the parlor.

Toy pianos being out of proportion, a picture, embossed in colors, was substituted. This is mounted and two groups of tiny wax candles are fastened in the front panels. A statuette of Shakespeare, a colored medallion, and photographs decorate the top. This piano, with a carved piano-stool, stands across one corner of the room.

Lace curtains on curtain poles are put up at the windows and a white fur rug is spread on the floor. An oval gilt frame containing a photograph of our Superintendent, Mr. F. D. Clarke, holds the place of honor just above the mantel. Other pictures also adorn the walls.

A walnut bookcase near the window is filled with tiny books, fancy-backed, and entitled "Tennyson," "Brown-ing," "Shakespeare," "Thelma," etc. One, a black leather-bound volume, is named "Michigan Methods," by Mr. F. D. Clarke. A walnut parlor table, with point-lace cover, stands at one side. This holds a Bible, photographs, and a magazine. A silver clock and a pair of opera-glasses stand on the mantel.

Rich old-gold plush furniture was made; a large sofa stands across one corner, near the fireplace. An onyx and brass stand holds a dainty glass vase; a large silver vase, gold lined, stands at one end of the piano.

With the help of some glass-blowers, a beautiful chandelier, with five electric-light bulbs, was made. This is suspended from the ceiling. A chandelier with three bulbs also hangs in the dining-room.

A statue of Cæsar, near the book-case, adds a touch of refinement. A guitar is laid on one chair and a mandolin on the couch. Sofa-cushions lie scattered about the room.

A boy doll, with movable joints, is dressed in a fine white sailor-blouse and knee trousers. He sits in the large plush armchair, watching two pointer dogs chained together which are playing on the floor. A daintily dressed lady is seated at the piano.

The color scheme of the bedroom is blue and white. A small bed, enameled blue, is at one side of the room, completely furnished with mattress, sheets, pillows, pillow-cases, shams, comforter, and blanket. The bed is draped with white dotted mull.

A chiffonier also stands at one side. On this are placed a lamp (warranted to burn ten hours) with a silk shade; a brush and comb; a pin-cushion, pins, and two bottles of perfume. A large mirror hangs on the wall above.

A trunk, with tray, key, and padlock, has several placards tacked on it, naming the various foreign cities through which it has passed. On top of the trunk is a golf bag with clubs. One boy asked, "Is that what you play shinney with?"

The dressing-table, draped with soft white silk, holds a wash-bowl and pitcher, soap-dish and soap, also perfume. On the wall hangs a diamond-shaped mirror. Through a wee towel-ring is drawn a damask linen towel. At the other side of the mirror hangs a whisk broom. A wicker clothes-hamper stands on the floor.

Near the bed is a baby-basket, draped with silk mull. In the basket lies a rosy baby. In front of the dressing-table, on the Persian rug, is a small bath-tub with a sponge for the baby's bath. The addition of an ottoman and a "sleepy hollow" chair completes the bedroom.

In the center of the dining-room stands the dining-table, covered with a spotless damask linen table-cloth. A dainty centre-piece, embroidered with forget-me-nots, is laid on the cloth. A delicate gold candelabra, fitted with tiny wax candles, stands on the centre-piece. A silver tea-

tray at one side holds a silver tea-set. A napkin, spoon, and thin glass tumbler are placed at the side of each plate. A dish of meat, platter of baked fish, plates of doughnuts and biscuit, also a cake covered with icing, are arranged on the table.

In one corner of the room stands a modern-looking sideboard, made to order. This holds a pile of plates, silver pitcher, and egg-dish. A linen drawn-work cover was given to me by one of the girls in school.

Near the sideboard is an oak writing desk with green felt-covered top, complete with a pencil, inkstand, account-book, paper, envelope, and stamp. At one side is the waste-basket.

On the wall is a shelf, draped with some soft material, holding a marble clock, photographs, and a shell. On the floor beneath is a heavy vase.

Across another corner of the room is placed a dainty folding screen—one of the choicest possessions of the home. In front of the window stands a glass globe containing gold-fish. Near this is a jardinière, holding a plant in blossom. The pictures on the wall are appropriate to the room. A mail-box is near the door. Four walnut dining chairs surround the table.

In the dining-room sits the dear old grandmother drinking a cup of tea, a grey fur rug spread under her feet. On the opposite side of the room is the grandfather, resting his arms on a cane and nodding his head reflectively as he muses on the "good old times."

One of the most interesting parts of the house is the kitchen. A large cooking-range stands in one corner. This is furnished with a lifter, kettle, skillet, and stove-pipe. At the back of the room is an enameled wash-stand with hot and cold water faucets, two washbowls, soap-dish, soap, hanging mirror, and towel. Near this are the water-pail and dipper.

In the other corner of the kitchen is a large oak cupboard fitted with shelves; this holds a china tea-set, tin-ware, etc. One shelf is filled with tiny glass bottles containing tea, coffee, ginger, cinnamon, cloves, rice, barley, sugar, salt, pepper, tapioca, corn-starch, cocoa, allspice, coriander seed, and other spices. The bottles are labelled. Butter-crocks are on the lower shelf and a clothes-basket on the floor.

Under the window, which has thin white "peek-a-boo" curtains, stands a kitchen table, covered with white oil-cloth. On this is placed a moulding-board spread with brown and white cookies, a loaf of graham and two loaves of white bread; scales, coffee-mill, rolling-pin, grates, knife, fork, and spoon.

On the other side of the room is a low bench, holding the wash-tub, laundry soap, and clothes-pins. Hanging on the walls is a variety of articles: flat-iron holders, lantern, corn-popper, clothes-line, broom, and mop. A drum and sled are on the floor, nor have a barrel of flour and a scuttle of coal been forgotten.

A tea-kettle is simmering on the stove; an omelet is preparing in a frying-pan and a kettle of beans is slowly cooking. Underneath the stove is a dish of milk which a fat little kitten is enjoying, while a tiny puppy sits near, watching with keen interest.

While these preparations for the meal are going on, I will describe our Dinah, a bright-looking young colored girl. She is dressed in dark blue calico with white linen collar and cuffs, white apron, and a jaunty waiting-maid's cap on her head. She stands with one arm on the back of the chair and carries a duster in her other hand.

In all, the names of about three hundred and fifty articles can be taught from this cabinet. In addition to learning the names of the objects, there is a large field for action writing; also lip-reading and articulation.

In teaching a beginning class, names of the more common articles may be mingled with the ordinary language work, but great care should be taken not to overload the mind of the child with a multitude of words. Follow the child. Give the names of the various objects as he asks for them or the need arises.

I can only roughly outline here the work that can be used in connection with the principles laid down in Caroline C. Sweet's "First Lessons in English."

When teaching Lesson IV, or the transitive verb, sentences similar to the following may be used:

A woman holds a comb.
A woman holds a brush.
Dinah sweeps the floor.
Dinah cooks the dinner.
Dinah cooks some eggs.
Dinah makes bread, cookies, etc.
A woman sets the table.
Grandpa reads a newspaper.
A boy eats cake.
The baby holds a doll.

In Lesson XI introduce the predicate adjectives; give sentences like these:

The stove is black.
The lady's dress is silk.
Grandpa's cane is yellow.
Grandma is old.
Dinah's apron is white.

In Lesson XIII, illustrating adverbs of time and manner, these sentences may be helpful:

A bed stands in the bedroom.
The pictures hang on the wall.
A vase stands on the mantel.
A book lies on the table.
A pillow lies on the couch.

Lesson XIV:

Dinah sweeps with a broom.
Dinah dusts with a duster.
The boy plays with a sled.
The boy plays with a drum.
The lady sews with a needle.
Dinah dresses neatly.

Lesson XV:

The cook stirs cake with a spoon.
She washes dishes with water and soap.
She wipes the dishes with a towel.
Dinah pops corn in a corn-popper.
She hangs the dish-cloth on a nail.
She irons clothes with a flat-iron.
She places napkins on the table.
The lady sits on the piano-stool.
She takes a book from the book-case.
The boy eats with a knife and fork.

The various house-keeping duties of the week can be taught from the kitchen. On Monday the children could be interested in "wash-day."

First, the children should all be provided with sharp pencils and clean sheets of paper. Insist upon neatness and good language.

For convenience, the stove and necessary utensils can be taken from the cabinet and placed on the teacher's desk in plain sight of the pupils. Then the children may write:

It is Monday morning—Dinah looks happy and well. She washes the clothes to-day. The soiled clothes are in a clothes-basket.

Dinah builds a fire in the stove. She puts the boiler on the stove. She pours a pail of water into the boiler. Dinah has a cake of soap. She cuts the soap. She puts the pieces of soap into a basin of water. The basin sits on the stove. The soap melts.

Dinah puts the wash-tub on the bench. She pours the hot water out of the boiler. She puts the water into the tub. She takes the melted soap off from the stove. She pours it into the tub.

Dinah washes the clothes in the tub. She rubs them on the wash-board. She rinses the clothes in cold water. She gets a bottle of "bluing." A little bluing is put in the water. Bluing makes the clothes white and clean.

Dinah puts a wringer on the tub. She rolls the clothes through the wringer. She puts up a clothes-line. She hangs the clean clothes on the line. She pins them with clothes-pins. The sun shines on them. The sunshine and wind dry the clothes. It is noon now.

Dinah washes her face and hands. She combs her hair and puts on a clean apron. She is not tired. She is hungry. She makes an apple pie for dinner. I think the clothes will be nice and white.

A tactful teacher can make many language lessons from this. The lesson can be shortened or changed to suit the circumstances.

Make the lesson as realistic as possible. Allow the children to express their own ideas. Be careful to have the work draw out the individuality of the pupils.

"Baking day" is a subject full of material for language work. This lesson may be taught in a manner similar to the previous one:

It is a sunshiny day.

Dinah bakes some cookies to-day. She builds a fire. She gets a yellow bowl and a spoon. She puts them on the table.

The milkman brought her a quart of milk yesterday. The milk is sour. She pours the sour milk into a cup.

She puts some sugar and butter into the yellow bowl. She mixes the butter and sugar. She puts an egg into the bowl. She puts a little soda into the sour milk. The soda and milk foam. She pours this into the bowl.

Then Dinah stirs it with a large spoon. She stirs very fast. She puts flour in the bowl and stirs the whole. In a little while it is thick. It is called dough.

Dinah puts the dough on the moulding-board. She rolls it with a rolling-pin. She gets a tin cooky-cutter. She cuts the cookies. They are round. She takes a knife and cuts out a cooky man for the baby. She makes eyes for the cooky man with small black currants. The baby will laugh.

Dinah lays the cookies in cooky-tins. She puts the tins in the oven. The oven is hot. Soon the cookies are baked. They are brown. She takes the cookies out of the oven and sets them on the table.

The baby comes into the kitchen. He sees the cooky man. He laughs, and climbs up to the table. He grabs the cooky man and bites its head off. Are you sorry for the cooky man? The baby is not sorry. He eats the cooky man's arms and legs, too.

With small pupils, one could ask each morning: "What is the lady doing to-day?" or, "With what is the boy playing?" This will put a new interest into the "morning news" problem.

Another morning might be spent in teaching the names of the various articles used on the dining-table. The afternoon before this lesson is taught invitations for a doll's tea-party are written. These are addressed to the pupils. The invitations are written in simple language so the child may read it himself. If these are placed in tiny envelopes, it will add to their attractiveness.

The next morning, the teacher's desk is transformed into a dining-room. The dining-table is placed in the centre and care is taken that the china, etc., are arranged properly. A chair is placed for each doll guest.

When the children come from chapel, the wraps of the dolls are removed and, after a few moments spent in conversation, the guests are seated at the table. Our ever-useful Dinah acts as waiter.

A guest is assigned to each child. He speaks for the doll. If he wishes the doll to ask for some cake or other dish, the proper language is given him; the request must

either be spelled or spoken. This may be varied in different ways.

The following language may be taught:

May I have some more coffee?

May I have some more meat?

Please pass the cake.

Please pass the salt and pepper.

May I have some sauce, please?

Please give me a spoon.

May I have some potato?

May I have a glass of water, please?

Yes, thank you.

No, thank you.

If you please.

This makes a valuable exercise in articulation and up-reading. The next morning the pupils are allowed to write an account of the party.

The different holidays of the year might be celebrated. On Christmas, a tiny wreath could be hung in the window and a Christmas tree set up, laden with gifts. Afternoon calls might be received and the etiquette of the occasion taught.

In more advanced classes, these lessons can be greatly enlarged and more difficult language used. Sometimes the little old grandmother might tell a story of her younger days, or the grandfather give an account of some old-fashioned "husking-bee."

This household is of intense interest to the children, and their remarks are often quaint and amusing. One girl thought the mother should be in the nursery, taking care of the baby, instead of playing the piano. Another girl, being brought by her teacher to my room to view the cabinet, began to sob. Much questioning elicited the fact that it made her so homesick to look at it, she wanted to go home at once.

One is constantly finding new features to add to the

collection. A larger cabinet could be made, on a more elaborate scale, with hall, bath-room, pantry, and wood-shed. The wood-shed is needed to hold the grind-stone, scythe, saddle, rake, hoe, hatchet, pick-axe, boat, bath-tub, saw, etc. Also to store the little bags of grain, labeled and containing the different varieties of grain, nuts, and other things. The expense can be large or small, as one chooses.

I have tried to show the helpfulness of this cabinet, and shall feel amply repaid if a thought has been given that will help some other young teacher to make the school room a happy place, full of interest to the little ones.

LULA E. CARPENTER,
Instructor in the Michigan School, Flint, Michigan.

THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN AUSTRALIA.

TO-DAY each Australian State can boast of a noble institution with a staff of well trained teachers, equipped with everything that tender charity can prompt or science can devise to advance the education of the deaf.

Let me in the first place refer to Queensland, which is the youngest State in Australia. Here in its capital, Brisbane, it is gratifying to find 31 blind pupils being cared for and 22 deaf children pursuing the combined system. In this institution, as well as in the others of Australasia, all the children, blind and deaf, are taught to perform household duties; the deaf are provided with employment in the home and in the workshops where practicable. The blind children are taught chair-caning and basket-making. The 9 women and 48 men employed in the workshops during the last financial year received in all £2,494 as wages. This gives one a fair idea of the good results achieved by the Queensland Institution.

In Melbourne the Victoria Deaf and Dumb Institution

looks after 33 boys and 37 girls who are taught by the oral method. Where, however, pupils are found who are unable to derive any benefit from articulation, they are transferred to a manual class. This "oral" method is not the "pure oral" of the German schools, since natural signs are employed occasionally as supplementary aids in teaching.

It was my privilege, when passing through Melbourne last February on my way hither, to see the good work going on in this noble institution, as also to meet with my old friend, Mr. F. Rose, its founder, and a large company of the deaf—his pupils in bygone years. There, too, I had the pleasure of meeting the energetic and popular missionary to the adult deaf, Mr. Abrahams, and of seeing something of the good work he is doing in this new sphere to which he was recently appointed, a work which, I am glad to say, is akin to that carried on with more or less vigor in each of the States of Australasia.

In previous years the Victorian government has given an annual subsidy of £1,000, but this year the allowance has been reduced by 18 per cent, owing to a general retrenchment, mainly on account of the protracted drought throughout the State. The adult deaf here as elsewhere are capable of engaging in any trade where hearing is not required. As a consequence it is rare to find any of them unemployed or dependent upon any one, a fine spirit of hopefulness and independence animating and lifting them towards higher aims and conditions of life.

In South Australia the Brighton Blind and Deaf and Dumb Institution provides for the education of 76 pupils, of which number 13 are blind and 63 deaf. Fifteen helpless ones are cared for in the Angas Home for Aged and Infirm Deaf-Mutes. The government assists the Brighton Institution by an annual grant of £400. Bootmaking, cooking, modelling, gardening, dressmaking, and other

occupations in which the deaf can engage, are taught here as in the Melbourne Institution referred to already. The system of instruction adopted here is also the combined.

The Angas Home is the only one in Australia which is provided for aged and infirm deaf-mutes. It is both a credit to the good people of Adelaide and a boon to those for whose care and comfort it has been provided.

In another respect too this Angas Home is interesting from the fact that it cares for a girl borne down with the treble affliction of being blind as well as deaf and dumb. This is the only case, so far as I know, of its kind in Australasia.

In Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, with whose institution for the benefit of the deaf and blind it has been my privilege to be connected for over thirty years, we have a noble building, situated on a fine site, containing over five acres of land on the Newtown Road, where the deaf and dumb and the blind from all parts of the State are educated. Forty years ago this Institution commenced its useful work with 7 deaf and dumb pupils in a small two-storied house in the city. About 600 children have been educated here and prepared to become useful, industrious, and self-reliant members of society. Of these about 400 were deaf and dumb and 200 blind. The children here, as in kindred institutions throughout Australia, receive the best education it is in our power to bestow. Instruction is given in the ordinary subjects, including drawing, modelling, carpentry, cookery, plain and fancy needle-work, and general domestic duties for the deaf: also in music, etc., for the blind.

Year after year the newest and most helpful appliances for imparting instruction to our deaf and blind young people are sought for and utilized. For the information thus gained, whether from reports received from kindred institutions or through the American Volta Bureau, to

whose kindly offices we are so very much indebted, I feel most grateful. In ways like this we try to keep in touch with the developments constantly going on elsewhere regarding the education of the deaf and the blind.

Every year inspectors from the State Public Instruction Department visit the Institution, examine the pupils, and furnish a report on the progress made. It is gratifying to be able to say that the general tenor of these reports is one of satisfaction, and to add that most of the Institutions of these States of Australia can tell a similar tale, both as regards procedure and results.

Adjoining this building an Institute for the Adult Deaf has been erected by the Board of Directors, and was opened last year. In this handsome edifice these young men and women, ex-pupils of the Institution, are enabled to meet conveniently for purposes of amusement, instruction, and religious culture. Regarding this church or institute, let me here quote the remarks of one who when passing by paid us a friendly visit one evening last winter: "As you walk past it on an inclement evening and catch a glimpse of its comfortable interior and the smiling faces within, you must with them feel grateful for the forethought which prompted its erection."

Victor Hugo has well said that the civilization of a people may be judged by the care bestowed upon the young and the helpless. The Sydney resident may, with pardonable pride, point out to the visitor from a foreign clime the splendid group of buildings which adorn his city in this vicinity, St. Paul's College, St. Andrew's, St. John's, Moore Theological College, the Women's College, and Prince Alfred Hospital. These palaces of learning or benevolence, outward signs of true national advancement, stand in close proximity to the Institution for the Deaf and the Blind.

In Tasmania the interests of the blind, both adults and children, are thoughtfully considered. Quite recently I

had the opportunity of visiting the Institution in Hobart, of seeing the work being done both in their schoolroom and workshops, and of learning that the instruction of the deaf is about to be taken up very soon. The system to be adopted is the combined. In bygone years, until very recently indeed, the deaf and blind children of this Island colony were sent either to the Sydney or the Melbourne institution, a plan which, in view of its comparatively small population, suited admirably. Both convenience and economy were thus observed. Somewhat similar remarks would apply as regards both Western Australia and New Zealand, though for several years past this latter and more distant colony, situated 1,200 miles east of Sydney, has had in operation excellent institutions for both the deaf and blind. That for the deaf is at Sumner, near Christchurch, conducted on the "pure oral" method, and that for the blind at Auckland.

It would be difficult to speak too warmly of the enlightened zeal and energy with which the work of these several institutions is carried on, or to overestimate the prudence and philanthropic spirit of those engaged in their government and support. Truly this "Greater Britain," these "Colonies beyond the seas," children of the grand old mother country of whose splendid history and ancestry the Australians are so justly proud, these thriving provinces not yet much over a century in age, are advancing rapidly in much that tends to the progress and higher interests of the human family.

If my visit to your country and my acquaintance with the workings of your great institutions should help us in our endeavors in those far away fields of labor at the Antipodes, then my mission will not be in vain, and I venture to think that your own cordial wishes and sympathies will be gratified in proportion to the benefits we thus gain.

SAMUEL WATSON,

*Principal of the New South Wales Institution,
Sydney, New South Wales Australia*

GEOGRAPHY TEACHING.

IN the first place, geography is a splendid study to improve the language of the deaf, because of the excellent chance it gives the teacher in the repetition of the same language *principles* without the repetition of the exact words. Repetition in language *principles* is what we need more than anything else in the teaching of language. It has all the benefits to be derived from a lesson in memorizing with none of its disadvantages. It has variety as well as repetition. You put a child to poring over a lesson, trying to commit it to memory, and it soon becomes dry and lifeless. But you may have a child write all day such expressions as, "Little Rock is in the central part of Arkansas on the Arkansas river," and he will never become tired so long as you change the name of the places, which necessitates a change of the location; though the language principle remains the same.

It gives the teacher a splendid opportunity to teach that the article *a*, *an*, or *the* should be used before all common nouns, except when they have a possessive modifier, but that proper nouns need no article before them, as a rule; and it gives an excellent opportunity to show the pupil this so often that he will never forget it. For instance, the pupil has a marked tendency to write, "Mr. Coker went to city to buy hat," leaving out *the* before *city* and *a* before *hat*. When constantly drilled that *a*, *an*, or *the* should be used before all name-words, they usually develop a tendency to write such expressions as "Mr. Mashburn taught in *the* Washington." I correct this tangle for them by telling them that before the names of places or people we do not use an article, though I sometimes explain that before names of rivers, oceans, and mountains the article *the* may be used.

Again, it gives the best opportunity to teach the real meaning of *to* and *from* in such questions as, "How would you go from Little Rock to Fort Smith?" or "On what bodies of water would you go from — to —?" or "What direction is — from you?" After considerable practice in these forms of questions they learn that *from* always indicates the starting point and *to* the end of the journey. Then, to be sure that this idea was firmly fixed, I should turn all these questions around, as "What direction is Fort Smith from you?" and then, "What direction are you from Fort Smith?" When I first started my pupils on this form they were as apt to answer the question, "What direction is Louisiana from Arkansas?" by saying, "Arkansas is south from Louisiana," as they were to answer it correctly, but by constant drill that *from* indicated the starting point, but that the place following *from* was the last word of the sentence in questions of the last form above, they soon learned to answer the question correctly.

I had considerable trouble in getting my pupils to use *in*, *-ern* and *part of* in answer to such questions as, "Where is Texarkana?" They wanted to write, "Texarkana is southwest of Arkansas." To overcome this difficulty, I drew a rough map of Arkansas hurriedly on the board and cut it up by dotted lines into the northern part, eastern part, southern part, western part, central part, north-western part, southeastern part, etc. Then I wrote the name of each part plainly in its place as, "The south-western part of Arkansas," in the lower left corner and so forth as in the diagram on the next page.

I had the pupils of the class make an effort to tell me what I should write in each section as I marked it off, and then corrected their expression, calling especial attention to the *-ern* and *part of*, so that they would get the difference between this expression and the expression, "Missouri is north of Arkansas."

than they could learn by studying wise, bookish definitions for ten years? Let us show them as many of these things as is possible at first, so they will be able to recognize them when they are seen both in reality and on the map, then where they are located, and later—much later—the language definition of them. There is too much gloss and show about our education. There is too little of real use.

This reminds me of a young acquaintance of mine. He had finished the high school and the academy and come home. He told his father, who was a practical business man, of all his vast knowledge of algebra and geometry, Latin and Greek. His father listened to all this with that knowing smile which a kind, indulgent father sometimes wears just before his innocent lamb is to be shorn of his first good growth of conceit. Then he said, "Son, I wish you would go and calculate the number of feet of lumber on that wagon for me." The young man went along with that confident stride which is so characteristic of the young student who has conquered all the problems of school life and goes forth to seek other worlds to vanquish. He returned with the same confident air, but his answer showed enough lumber on that one wagon to build five large houses.

We have the same results in some of our schools. Let us put our hearts into our work and ask ourselves the question, "What is the matter?" Let us reason out the problem and then give our pupils something practical, something to take home with them to help them throughout life. Let us stop working for self. Let us stop wire-pulling. Let us get some of the envy and malice out of our hearts and get some of the sunshine of God's love and brotherly kindness in. Let us not work for self-aggrandizement or think of our pull with the governor or legislature or board, but let us think of a pull all together toward the elevating and improving of our pupils. No true teacher will want any pull with anybody except such as may be

part of were not used, and I gave them the form, "Louisiana is south of Arkansas." I gave them several questions of this kind and then mixed the two forms of questions so as to be sure the pupils understood the principles. I should then have the pupils go over this very same process for at least fifty questions to be sure they understood the principle. This might be tiresome to the teacher, but it would not be to the pupils if you gave them a different city to locate each time, which would necessitate a change of the location though the same language principle would be used in all. It is time well spent if it should require even a week, or a month for that matter; for direction and location are the great fundamental principles of geography teaching and I have never yet had a pupil in my class who failed to understand these principles when explained in this way, and to learn and use the correct form of language in the answer.

I teach my pupils the idea of *up* and *down* a river by taking them to some creek or river near by, throwing a stick into the water, and showing them that the stick does not remain in the same place, but moves away. I tell them that the stick moves *down* the river, since water always flows down, and that the opposite direction is *up*. I also tell them that up the river it is smaller and down the river it is larger. I show them some other small stream flowing into this stream and tell them that it is a branch or tributary of the larger stream. I tell them that the place where they unite is the junction or confluence of the rivers. To teach then the meaning of *source*, *course*, and *mouth* of a stream, I take the class out some day just after a rain to some small rivulet made by the rain and we go to the beginning of it. I tell them that this point is called its source, or where it rises; then we should follow it down. While doing this, I explain that the land along the very edge of the water is called the banks and that the

one to our right is called the right bank, and the other the left bank, and that the direction in which we are traveling is the course of the river, and, when we reach where it flows into another stream, that the part between its banks there is called its mouth. Then I take them back up the rivulet which has run dry in places by this time, and tell them that the place where the water has flowed is the bed of the rivulet, and call their attention to the fact that it is lower than the banks and that the reason of this is that the water carries away some of the land which it touches. Then I tell them that a river is the same as this rivulet, except larger, and that when a great many of these rivulets flow together, they make a river, but that the sources of many of these rivulets are springs where the water bubbles from the ground and is clear and usually cold.

Geography also teaches the pupil to follow the language of the question, which is a very important factor in teaching deaf-mutes. Every teacher knows how prone pupils are to wander away from the language of the question and become hopelessly lost, without compass or astrolabe, on the treacherous sea of their own language resources and fall into unintelligible jumbles of words or into the deceptive submarine maelstroms of the verb. The teacher of geography has the opportunity of constantly giving the warning, "Follow the question." In this connection, I wish to say that I do not like the form of question, "What large, beautiful river flows through Arkansas?" but that I prefer this form, "What is the large, beautiful river which flows through Arkansas?"

I have no use for books in my plan, except for the maps in them, for you will notice that I reverse the plan of most geographers by beginning at home (the known) and gradually radiating from this point, while most geographers begin away from home (the unknown) and gradually come home to the known. They disregard the

Great universal educational principle of "First the known, then the unknown;" or, "Teach the unknown by the known." In all education, except in geography, teachers begin with the known and proceed to the unknown; but in geography this principle is too often reversed.*

I believe that this principle is right and that it is even more important in the teaching of geography than in any other study. It is a universal complaint that children do not connect what they learn from geography with the real earth. A pupil in one of our schools has illustrated this point more forcibly than anything I can say, and his answer cries out in unmistakable appeal for a change in our plans of teaching geography. The pupil was asked if he had ever seen the earth, and, after considerable serious thought answered, "We cannot see the earth, because it is so far off." The point I am trying to make is that our teaching is too abstract. According to this child's idea the earth was far beyond the stars, and our teaching is just as far from what it ought to be as the stars are from us. Let us take the natural order by teaching our pupils of the home first and then of the outside world; then we shall find geography an interesting, lively study and our pupils will not be searching for the earth beyond the stars.

What difference should it make to us whether they can give a learned definition of what geography is, at first? Why should we spend day after day worrying the life out of both pupil and teacher on dry and (to the pupil) meaningless definitions of what a hill, river, island, cataract, mountain, and so forth, are, when we could take them for an hour's walk and teach them more in reality about what these things are by showing them the real objects

*The right method of teaching geography has been advocated in the *Annals* for years by some of our educators of the deaf. Among these are Mr. Weston Jenkins (vol. xxv, p. 104), Mr. F. C. Newcombe (vol. xxxi, p. 107), Mr. F. D. Clarke (vol. xlii, p. 143), Mr. F. M. Driggs (vol. xlii, p. 299), and Miss C. R. Smith (vol. xlii, p. 305).

and the pupils soon learn to answer these forms in correct language. This plan would save the teacher much disappointment, leave more time to impart information, and give the pupils a correct language expression for their knowledge. After the pupil had learned to answer this list of questions about each State, the teacher might change the language of the question and bring out the same information in different language, always explaining that the two expressions mean the same. The pupils, in four months, will learn to answer and understand this list of questions asked about each State, and will remember, too, if the teacher first spend two months in teaching directions in the classroom and on the grounds and in giving them a knowledge of their own State. This makes a total of six months to learn of their own State and the whole Union. If you begin at home this way, they will remember it.

The teacher should constantly gather pictures of the people, animals, occupations of the people, and prominent features of the countries or cities about which he intends to teach. A schoolroom in which geography is taught should be a picture gallery. The class should make frequent imaginary excursions to these countries from different places, noting how they should make the trip at every stage of the journey; the surface, climate, and productions of each country or section they traverse; the habits and clothing of the inhabitants and other peculiarities.

For teaching the motions and shape of the earth, the cause of day and night, the causes of the changes of season and other matters of higher geography, I have nothing better, I believe, than the good, old way of diagrams and globes.

I only hope I have not so wearied the readers of this long paper that they will disregard my suggestions solely because of "that tired feeling." The point I am striving most ardently to make is that the usual system of geography

teaching ought to be turned right around. That there is something wrong is universally conceded. I believe it to be that we begin in the wrong place. We ought to begin at home, then take the States bordering on us and radiate in all directions.

Wherever there has been progress, wherever there has been improvement, there has been a change. In every avenue of life, in transportation, manufacture, agriculture, education, everything: every stage of progress has been the result of discontent. In every age since the time when the tent-dweller on the plains of Asia silently folded his tent and took his earthly belongings upon his back and moved to more verdant pastures, up to the present high state of advancement when the traveller may move in a palace car or on board a luxurious ocean-liner, every change for the better, every step of progress, has been heralded by discontent with present achievements and the reasoning out of a better plan. Discontent with present achievements in geography teaching is universal. Let us try a change.

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THE TRAINING OF THE SENSE OF SIGHT.

The first step in sight training is to gain the attention of the child. This may be done by giving quick exercises which he can imitate. The following movements may be used. Standing, sitting, going, coming, hopping, eating, walking, marching, closing eyes, opening eyes, moving head forward, backward, and to the right and left sides, placing hands on hips, on head, on knees, on shoulders and face, arms upwards, sideways, down, etc.

Matching forms is a good sight-training exercise. Cut out forms of solids, as many as fifteen or twenty, and paste corresponding forms upon a large card. Hold up one form at a time quickly, and let the children find the duplicates on the chart. Perhaps, as the children progress, two or three forms may be held up at the same time. Some forms should be made very much alike, such as the oval and the egg-shaped forms, that the child may notice slight distinctions at a glance.

Number cards. Cards may be prepared upon which a certain number of dots are pasted, cut out of colored papers, and another set may be placed upon a table around which the children are gathered. Pictures of the number cards may be drawn upon the blackboard, if more convenient. This exercise is to be conducted in the same way as the matching-of-forms exercise. It is well to have a variety in the placing of the dots upon the cards, which makes the exercise more difficult. For instance, the card upon the table or the picture upon the board, representing *five*, may have the dots placed thus :•:, while the card which the teacher holds up quickly and then hides, may be arranged thus . : : or . : . or : : or This same exercise may be given duplicate with pictures of different varieties pasted upon the cards, rather than dots. Dots on a certain card may be of black and red, while those on the card which matches it in number may be of blue and gold. The color is naturally the first thing which attracts the eye of the child, so the drill of seeing the *number* also is of benefit. A large chart with figures of good size upon it may be used in the same way, with dominoes cut in two. An exercise of like nature, but with the simple object of matching *colors*, may be used.

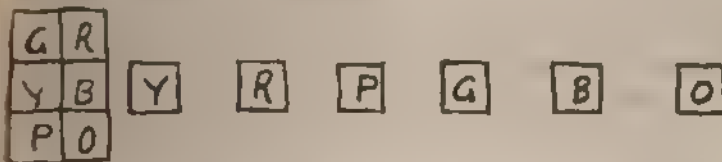
Other exercises with color. Paint or draw with colored crayons upon a sheet of cardboard a large rainbow. Each child may have pieces of colored cardboard or paper which

match the rainbow colors. The teacher points quickly to a certain color and children hold up corresponding card or paper. The teacher or one of the children may hold up quickly a certain color, and one or more of the class points to the corresponding tint on the rainbow.

A large pie may be made thus,* the segments being movable. While the children blind their eyes, the teacher removes a piece of the pie, and children tell at a glance which one was taken away.



Several pieces may be removed in the same manner. Or a thin cloth may be placed over the pie, as soon as the children have seen the piece or pieces removed, so that a picture may be carried in the mind, and the color of the absent piece or pieces guessed correctly. The position or order of the pieces may be varied, while the child is blindfolded, and then he may tell the original color. This exercise may be varied by the placing of the colors, and by using different shaped forms. For instance,



Place two rows of squares, ovals, circles, or triangles upon the table (around which the children are gathered), with corresponding colors in the two rows, but different forms. Let *matching of color* be the object of the lesson. When the children close their eyes, the teacher or a child removes one or more of the forms from one of the rows. The blindfolded boys and girls should know at a glance

*For actual use the segments of the circle and the squares referred to further on are of the colors indicated in the cuts by initial letters: Red, Green, Orange, Blue, Yellow, Purple.

which colors they miss. This is quite a simple exercise, as the one complete row of colored forms aids the memory on the other row. Of course variations of these exercises may be given, and different material can be used for variety, such as rubber balls with colored worsted coverings, colored pieces of cloth, tissue paper, etc. I have used simply the six primary and secondary colors in my description of the exercises, namely, red, blue, yellow, purple, orange, and green. These exercises are designed for very young children, but may be made more difficult by introducing the tints and shades.

A row of six children may each quickly hold up before the class a colored ball or other object, and the class may tell the color of the ball, or name the object which each child held.

Miscellaneous devices and games for the cultivation of the sense of sight. Let the children close their eyes or leave the room while the teacher places a small ball (or any other object chosen beforehand) somewhere within sight in the room. See which child will observe the ball first.

A large chart of cardboard out of which the forms of animals have been cut, leaving the perfect hollow likeness of the same, may be hung against the board or any dark background, so that the outline may be brought out distinctly, and the teacher, who has the corresponding cut-out animals in her possession, holds up one or two of them quickly before the class, who point to the corresponding outline on the chart; or the children may say the name or names of the animal or animals held to view, and the chart need not be used. Geometrical forms can be used in the same way, or any familiar objects.

Place a number of different objects upon a table, around which the class may march, all giving one swift glance at the collection, after which each child may write a list of the objects from memory, or recite the same. For a

variety, the objects may be placed in a row, or in groups, and the children may tell of the order or form of grouping.

Large written or printed words or numbers may be dealt with in the same manner on the table, or written upon the blackboard and erased quickly.

I here quote two games from the book entitled, "Parlor Games," by Helen E. Hollister, which I think help to quicken the observation of the child. The first is called, "Hide in Sight." In this game the children must all leave the room, or close their eyes, save one. It is the business of this person to hide a piece of money, only it must not be hidden *out of sight*. It should be placed plainly in view, in whole or in part. The class then begins to hunt for the piece of money. When one spies it he must not make any exclamation, must not even appear to have seen it, but must quietly go and take his seat, saying nothing, and apparently seeing nothing. It is very entertaining to see how the different children accept the discovery they have made. When every one has found the piece of money of course every one is seated. The last one to find it is the next to hide it.

The second game mentioned is entitled, "Throwing the Handkerchief," or by some, "Flying Cloud." The class being seated around the room in a circle, some one stationed in the center throws an unfolded handkerchief to one of the seated players. Whoever receives it must *instantly* throw it to some one else, and so on, while the person in the centre endeavors to catch the handkerchief, in its passage from one player to another. If he catches it as it touches somebody, that person must take his place in the centre. If it is caught in the air, the player whose hands it has left enters the circle. The handkerchief must not be knotted or twisted, but thrown loosely.

A few of these exercises I have gathered from other sources, but the greater share of them are original.

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DEAF AND POETRY.

It is not an impossible task to put poems and then are put to us, as to how the deaf may appreciate poetry. Poetry is one of the great gifts that life affords us, and to be able to appreciate poetry is synonymous with knowledge of good from life. There are persons so constituted that life appears to them as a poem, full of heartfelt life, full of joy and crosses, and all that goes to make up a life. It is such people as these who are able to find consolation in poetry, but not so with many deaf persons who can feel no such consolation to the same degree.

It is the ability to appreciate poetry that is lacking to the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded. It is to be pursued in fostering a taste for poetry. The same authority goes on to say that deaf and blind poets would be able to supply the deaf with poetry that may have impaired their appreciation. What they need is the best selections offered to them. They can in fact hear their own voice and can appreciate as effectively as those listeners who read, and to read effectively is often easier than hear. The deaf and the blind should be taught to read the very best, and only the most inspiring, and wholesome poetry. It is in harmony with the nobler types and it overcomes their physical defect by a higher type of ideas calculated vastly to enhance

Aside from this, there are those who believe that "the congenitally deaf can never appreciate poetry in its euphony; but that they can and do appreciate the lofty sentiment, the rhetorical finish, and the poetical simile of verse, will not be denied. It is said that when interpreting a poem of sublimity and grandeur into graceful signs or pantomime, there is no doubt that its beauty does appeal to the soul of the deaf person." I remember how powerfully I was affected by the graceful signs of a young Gallaudet College student who sang "Yankee Doodle" and "Marching through Georgia," as well as "Barbara Fritchie," on the boat to St. Joseph, Michigan. But I have never yet had the great pleasure of seeing "Marc Antony's Oration," or "Thanatopsis," or "De Profundis," or "The Cotter's Saturday Night," or "The Merchant of Venice" and others of Shakespeare's plays given in the sign language.

It is the custom in many of the schools for the deaf to have their pupils commit hymns and poems to memory and repeat them in signs during the Sunday morning chapel services. In this way, if the teacher has time to spare, the pupil receives many new, helpful, and noble ideas, and adds new words to his or her vocabulary. Or perhaps they remember some of the striking passages which impressed them, and of which they have made a note, to put up on the walls of their room, where they can see it every day, and thus be inspired and encouraged to do their very best. When I was a student at the University of Wisconsin, President and Mrs. Charles K. Adams frequently invited me to make myself at home in their very fine private library, the windows of which commanded a beautiful view of Lake Mendota. On the walls of this library I noticed there were a number of poetical and prose quotations framed, and the ideas they embodied were so excellent that I at once put up all my favorite quotations in large letters on paper, and these I tacked to the walls of my

room. Nowadays you can get some of the best poems or prose selections framed in an attractive way. Publishers also sell mottoes printed in large letters on cardboard for use in the schoolroom. As Byron so admirably puts it—

But words are things, and a small drop of ink
Falling like dew upon a thought, produces
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think.

Deaf persons who attend oral classes are taught to appreciate poetry, and they find much enjoyment in singing them in their own fashion, keeping time with their teachers' lip-movements, or the waving of a wand. That explains why some lip-readers like to watch the choir sing in church.

Besides the memorizing of poetry, another way to learn to value it is to take up some poet and study his works for examples of martial music, for beauty of thought, for illustrations of passion, faith, insight, imagination, description, pathos, inspiration, courage, patriotism and so forth, as follows:

Example of music of the slow, sad organ movement:

Tell me not in mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream!
For the soul is dead that slumbers,
And things are not what they seem.

This shows music of the martial type:

Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
Long has it waved on high,
And many an eye has danced to see
That banner in the sky:
Beneath it rung the battle shout
And burst the cannon's roar:—
The meteor of the ocean air
Shall sweep the clouds no more!

Beauty:

And what is so rare as a day in June?
Then, if ever, come perfect days;
Then Heaven tries the earth if it be in tune,
And over it softly her warm ear lays.

Faith:

Maybe Thou lettest this fleshy thorn
Beset Thy servant e'en and morn,
Lest he ower high and proud should turn.

Insight:

Let our unceasing earnest prayer
Be, too, for light; for strength to bear
Our portion of the weight of care,
That crushes into dumb despair
One-half the human race.

Courage:

Fitz-James was brave: Though to his heart
The life-blood thrilled with sudden start,
He manned himself with dauntless air,
Returned the Chief his haughty stare;
His back against a rock he bore,
And firmly placed his foot before;—
Come one, come all! this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I.

Inspiration:

Go then, and from the wells
Of ancient lore, from bards and sages old,
And from the chronicles
Of deeds heroic, gather potent spells,
Such as may nerve thy soul to action high and bold.

Imagination:

Wondrous and awful are thy silent halls,
O kingdom of the past!
There lie the bygone ages in their palls,
Guarded by shadows vast;
There all is hushed and breathless,
Save when some image of old error falls,
Earth worshipped once as deathless.

Or this:

Dear common flower that grow'st beside the way,
Fringing the dusty road with harmless gold,
First pledge of blithesome May.

Passion:

What gnarled stretch, what depth of shade is his!
There needs no crown to mark the forest's king;
How in his leaves outshines full summer's bliss!
Sun, storm, rain, dew, to him their tribute bring.
All nature seems his vassal proud to be,
And cunning only for his ornament.

While looking up the foregoing quotations in her notebook, the writer came across several specimens of poetry by the deaf, and these in turn brought to her attention a very interesting article anent "The Poetry of the Deaf," by Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet. It may be found in the *Annals*, vol. xxix, pp. 200-222. Since that article was published several other deaf poets have appeared. Among them may be named Mrs. May Martin Stafford, Mrs. Angelia Hawthorne Fisher, Mrs. Agatha Tiegel Hanson, Miss Alice C. Jennings, and Mr. Arthur Laurence Roberts.

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EDITH'S FIRST TWO YEARS AT SCHOOL.—I.

"Thou that teachest another, teachest thou not thyself?"

THE object of this brief sketch is to help in a measure the many who have inquired how I begin with pupils when they first enter school.

Edith (the name is fictitious) is far below the average child in mental capacity. But the method described here is practicable in any case, only varying according to the capabilities of the child, and this must be judged by the

teacher himself in each instance. It will be observed that in this case a great deal of industrious training was necessary that teachers in large schools would find it impossible to give in their limited time.

Teaching those children whom most people pronounce uninteresting and stupid is a work which none of us particularly desire to do, but when we remember that the one to whom most was forgiven was the one who loved most, we can give our time and our very selves to those who need us most. It is easy to teach the child who is bright and winning, but that is not the one who needs the thought and the tender love that the seemingly unlovable child does need. We cannot always tell what will be developed from those children who are at first so slow. We only know what is in the bud by the unfolding of the blossom. These pages will show what there was in Edith that only time and patience could develop.

Edith entered the Kendall School in 1901. Her hearing was almost normal, though it was very hard to make her understand what was said to her, and she did not speak at all.

At first she appeared wholly incapable of receiving instruction, and as the days passed by we were seriously thinking of giving her case up as hopeless. The attempt to teach her seemed a waste of time. She was almost as helpless as a baby, though she was fourteen years of age, strong and well developed physically. (I may say here her mental development was arrested by paralysis when a very young child.) She had always been treated like a baby, waited upon, and humored in every way, until she could not or would not do anything for herself.

When called from her seat to take part in the daily work of the school she would stand confused and scared. She seemed entirely devoid of the instinct of imitation. No amount of coaxing or urging could induce her even to

play. When placed among very young children at kindergarten work she simply sat motionless, staring vacantly around her as if she had suddenly been dropped from another world. If anything was placed in her hand she would hold it just as it was given her, making no signs either of pleasure or displeasure. I sometimes wondered if she had any mind, any intelligence. Was there really any way to reach and to rouse her dormant faculties? I reasoned that there must be something in her that sooner or later would respond if it were only gotten at in the right way. Happily I soon found that she had a quick temper and a will of her own. These were surely a foundation on which to work.

As I said before, she took no part in the school work. This continued two months. In the mean time I studied her and resolved to try force, as everything else had failed. Compulsion is always the very last thing to which a teacher should resort. This failing, Edith was doomed to return to her home as much in the dark as when she entered school. I was determined she should not do this until every means had been tried.

It was no easy matter to get her to the blackboard. To call or beckon her to me was useless, and if I started towards her she would cry out and fight. I walked up to her pleasantly, took firm hold of her arm, and pulled her to the board; fortunately for us both she remained where I put her, and there she stood like a statue. I put chalk in her hand, but she made no effort whatever to use it. She screamed, danced, kicked, and struck violently at me. I was determined not to be conquered, knowing that that day would decide her future. I took hold of her and put her in a corner; this at first seemed only to aggravate her, but between her paroxysms of screaming she would look appealingly at me, then I would smile and point to the board, take hold of her, and lead her again to her place.

This time she made an effort to write—that is, she struck at the board aimlessly at intervals, with the chalk, and I guided her hand to make vertical lines.

This was gone through every day for a few weeks, but I saw day by day that Edith was yielding. Now she knew she must obey, and began reluctantly to work, looking very serious as if she were wondering if it were possible that she must actually *do* something herself. Time thus passed for a few months. I often let a girl stand beside her to help and cheer her. Usually these little scenes lasted about ten minutes each day. When she was allowed to go to her seat such a changed expression would come over her face—an expression of sudden relief after torture.

I now began to use the slate pencil on the blackboard and tried to get Edith to trace the lines with chalk. At first she would not look at what I was doing. I tried to get her to make a line, but she would not. Then I took her hand and traced it over for her; finally she did it herself. Next I wrote lines with chalk and she copied them. This was her first attempt at writing, and was (as you may imagine) very laborious work. After writing those for a few days I gave her horizontal and then oblique lines. After considerable practice in these, as she was now able to hold the chalk, I started her on curves; a long drill on these and a thorough review of the three kinds of straight lines, and she could make the letter *c* fairly well. All this was necessary in order to train her hand, teach her to hold the chalk properly, concentrate her attention, and make easier the forming of letters. The following will illustrate more fully what I have explained above:

First / / / / / / /

Second // // // //

Third \ \ \ \ \ \

Fourth — — —

I was always careful to let Edith stop at once when I knew she was weary, for nothing is gained by keeping a child too long at one thing. She was now master of the letters *b i r d*, and could connect them much better than she did her first word, *cat*.

About three months were required to teach Edith her first word. At the end of eight months she could write eight words, namely, *cat, rat, cow, dog, pig, bird, hog, gi*. She learned on an average one word a month, but was able to recognize the pictures of only four objects (*cat, rat, cow, and dog*) without first reading their names written in script below each object. In the other four names she usually put wrong letters. For recreation in this work I placed slips of paper, on which were written names of objects on the table, for her to pick out names like those in her book. She enjoyed this very much, evidently regarding it as a game of some sort. In a short time she was able to pick out quickly the word like the one on the paper.

As another device for a pleasant change I wrote the words with which she was familiar on paper, leaving every other line blank for her to make a copy. It was hard for her to change from blackboard and chalk to paper and pencil, but she enjoyed it. At other times an open picture book would be given her with paper and pencil without being told what to do, and feeling no restraint she would carefully read the words she knew and copy them on her paper.

Now it will be seen that Edith could write words only, forming no sentences; so the next thing to be done was to teach her a verb. I gave her *ran*. As she did not know the letter *n*, this first had to be learned. Curves were made and added to other curves until she grasped the idea and could write *nn*. To write the word *ran* was more than could be expected, and she did not go beyond

my expectations, writing 12—. Thinking s would be easier I gave her the verb *sat*. But this was also too hard for her; therefore at the end of the first term in June I was not discouraged although she could not write a sentence.

I was satisfied that she was really capable of grasping some ideas, and that she had done better than I had expected. Anyway, it was a great satisfaction, not only to Edith but to those about her, that she was so changed in behavior, being more amiable and cheerful in June than she had been in September. I thought that if she never came back to me, into whosoever hands she might fall the burden would be somewhat lighter for the training she had received. Was not this enough to encourage any teacher?

Edith returned in the fall with renewed strength of mind and body, evidently ready for the more difficult work of a second term. She wore a more intelligent expression; the wild, shy, vacant look had entirely gone; she was wide awake, and, above all, she was interested in what went on about her. She greeted each one with a smile on opening day.

On examination I found she had forgotten all of the words but not all of the letters she had learned the last year. But we were much pleased to see that the change in her manner was permanent. Whenever she was called upon she quickly responded and seemed to say, "I am ready for work."

What she had to do now was to begin copying letters again, a few at a time, as she found difficulty with some (*b, w, g, y*). Curves were made, and in a short time she could make them all once more.

This being Edith's second year, as many minor details had been gone over the first year I determined to dis-

pense as far as possible with lines and curves and writing letters in sections.

Beginning with *cat* I wrote *c a t*, then *cat*. She mixed the letters up as usual, so I wrote *ca t*. When she had written that I connected *a* and *t* with a little line. After a short time she could write not only this word but others correctly without stopping.

During this period of Edith's progress I found it necessary to keep a diary of the words and letters that she knew, and the difficulties she had with each. In fact, I had written and I kept before me every day a complete account of all that she had learned up to that time, and my plan for her day's work was made accordingly. Nothing that she had once learned was allowed to escape her memory. She was kept interested for hours by changing her work, so that she would be learning the same old things without its becoming monotonous or wearisome to her. Her first lesson in the morning would be a few letters or words in a line to copy. What was copied correctly was erased and what was incorrect was re-written. While I was busy with her the more advanced pupils would write from memory the lessons studied the evening before. By the time they finished this Edith was allowed to rest or play while I corrected their work. Where there are several grades in one class the teacher should be methodical and keep written statements of what each grade has learned and can do. This gives the backward pupils a chance to observe and think about what the brighter ones have done.

Five hours is too long for a child in Edith's condition to be kept at study. There are many other ways of improving its mental condition. Edith's ill temper greatly retarded her progress. Often when she found difficulty with anything she would fly into a passion and yell like a wild Indian. Such gusts of temper have, of late, been less

and less frequent. They usually occur when she is worried with a letter that she makes partly right but cannot write quite correctly. For instance, the letter *g* she made very well alone, but in the word *dog* she always wrote *doj*. I often passed this over and had her write words which she knew to encourage her, and then take up a new word without *g*. The word *bird* was also very hard for her, as she could not make *r* correctly unless the word began with that letter. Always up to this time she wrote \backslash for *h* and \wedge for *p*, but after the Christmas holidays she could write almost all the letters. Up to this time the letters *f*, *k*, *q*, *v*, *z*, had been entirely omitted as they were too hard for her, and her time was better spent in writing words and practicing the letters she already knew.

Edith was never taught signs in the schoolroom. She learned the names of objects and the verbs only by looking at objects or pictures representing them. Signs used when at play with the other children were of great help in unfolding her mind and character. By signs she could give expression to her thoughts and feelings as in no other way. She was never prevented from conversing in signs, as it did not retard but rather aided her progress—often cheering her up when she was gloomy and irritable.

After a few words have been learned some children can easily be taught to write sentences. It is better to keep to the same verb for a time until the child is able quickly to distinguish the names of objects and the verb. Some pupils require more attention and individual instruction than others. If a child is slow and inattentive, then greater responsibility rests upon the teacher. He must be alive to every device to secure the attention, and at the same time must be careful not to spoil the child. The teacher who starts out to teach the deaf must, indeed, have force of character enough not to turn aside at the

hill of difficulty, and must be brave enough to fight the giants in his way.

If a child is forgetful and unreliable, give him more practice with the same letters and words. This can be done in many different ways without wearying the child. Copying on a slate or paper is work that requires a child's attention and also interests him. Begin with the pictures that are familiar to the pupil and lay slips of paper, on which their names are written, on the table, and let the child find the picture from its name. If the child cannot readily find the right picture let it be compared with one he does know; this will help him to place the slip under the correct object. Toys can be used in the same way, placing the slip under the toy; also compare pictures with toys, always using the slips of paper and writing their names on the blackboard. Another way is to let the child take the slip of paper to the window and when he has found the object outside he may write it on the slate or blackboard; or two pupils may be selected, one of whom is "teacher." The "teacher" has a number of slips from which his pupil may draw one and find the toy, picture, or other object of which it is the name. There are many other ways in which this memory lesson can be given. These little devices were a great help to Edith. She thus grew to associate names with the objects she saw in pictures in the schoolroom and outside.

Some may think all this care and attention does not bring results enough to pay for the labor expended. But is it not our duty to sow that others may reap? If we do not see the result we should not, therefore, think there is no fruit from our labor. Surely it is not beneath us to work along the line of genius described by the great Goethe as "an infinite capacity for taking pains."

Edith's first sentence gave her as much trouble as her first letter had done.

It was about the second week in November when she began to write words in sentence form. She could not always write the words correctly that she had learned. At times she could remember them and at other times would forget them entirely. So the only way was to teach them again and again. First I drilled her in the letter *u*, which she had forgotten, being unable to connect the curves properly. After learning to make the capital letter *A*, she practiced the word *ran* first by tracing, then by copying. But this word seemed almost too much for her. When I wrote it in chalk for her to copy, her old stubbornness and irritability returned with renewed vigor. She stood at the board moaning and swaying from side to side, making no effort to write. I left her to herself until she made up her mind to try, which she soon did. I then sent another pupil to help her, but Edith was in no mood for help. The little girl pointed to her own finished work on the board and again offered to help her. This time instead of accepting aid she began to write with all her might. After much writing and erasing she succeeded fairly well, and turned to me with a radiant face and pointed to her work. Now I wrote *ran*. She copied it; then I wrote "A cat ran." She copied it nearly correctly except the final *n*. After many corrections I found it impossible for her to write it perfectly, and so let her write it her own way. I now gave her other sentences. I wrote and she copied the following. "A cat ran," "A dog ran," "A girl ran," "A hog ran." I then brought out a scrapbook on the first page of which were animals in the act of running. I wrote a sentence on paper for her to read and copy. At first she found it hard to fix her attention on more than one word at a time, but after a while she could read the whole sentence without stopping to write each word. In a few days she was able to write sentences from pictures without a copy. Then the verb

serious but independent air, giving a few suggestions to others. Edith was utterly unable to start or even make a **stitch**, while Edna had finished nearly one-half. Louise was **slow**, but accurate. Lapscott could not start. Edith, after **starting**, was very, very slow, easily diverted, irritable and **cross**, inclined to cry at every mistake.

January 30, 1903. (Drawing rectangles and circles.) Edith was very dilatory about starting, but when she started her **cutting** was firm and straight. Lapscott worked well and **independently**. Edna was quick, steady, and accurate; Louise shaky and uneven. Edith's work was disappointing, **as** she started out well but soon became cross and seemed disgusted with the work. She wanted to use her left **hand**, though she does better work with the right. She **did** not in this lesson finish one side of one rectangle.

February 2, 1903. (Drawing.) We showed the children **how** to draw a circle with the end of a spool, then let them **try free-hand**. Some did fairly well. Edith refused to **cut her** circle out. Edna did not show her usual skill to-day; she seemed afraid to venture alone. Louise drew and **cut** out a cup and an apple. Edith was fifteen minutes **cutting** out half a circle.

February 3, 1903. (Block work.) When given a box of **blocks** Edith started at once a structure as high as possible, **using** two blocks as a foundation. Then she sorted them, **putting** all of each kind in a separate pile, squares, pillars, and bricks. Lapscott built fences and bridges; Edna houses and court-like structures. After being shown **some** steps, Edith began again to build a tower and **derived** much pleasure from her play. Before it was quite **completed** I let a pencil fall into it and asked her to get it **out** for me without breaking down her building. She **acted** quite naturally and took it as a joke.

February 4, 1903. (Pasteboard cats, dogs, etc.) We gave **each** child a pasteboard model of a cat or dog with paper,

pencil, and scissors. As usual Edith hesitated about tracing, and had to be coaxed a great deal before attempting anything. The others started at once and soon produced cats cut out with much care but little accuracy. Edith is much quicker at other work than at this. She seems afraid to attempt drawing or using the scissors. She was now almost merry at times, except when she remembered her pricked fingers, which she made an excuse for using her left hand. It was almost impossible to make her use the scissors. Edna was accurate and quick, Tapscott very slow, Louise interested and neat. All during the lesson Edith kept murmuring "Kitty," "Kitty."

February 6, 1903.—Edith was a little lazy to-day. After every movement she sat back and rested. If urged, she grew restless. Edna and Louise worked very well, finishing two figures before Edith had half finished one. She could not be induced to cut. Edna's work was remarkable for neatness. On being told to write the name of her work she wrote very neatly in one corner of her paste-board, "girl." Each of them could write their names on the models, but Edith did not finish hers.

February 9, 1903. (Colored sticks.) We drew a line on a tablet, pointed to a red ball, and the children put one red stick on the table. We found in this way five lines of different colors and made squares and six-sided figures. The children were made to follow the colors designated by pointing to the colored balls in a book. The work was very good, each child distinguished between the blue and purple, red and orange, blue and green. Edith was much quicker in this than at cutting work.

Edith was taught how to write the letter *I*, then the words *ran, sat, stood*. *I* was taught in two parts, then one. She could not start at the top and make the letter, so she was allowed to do it in her own way.

To-day we ruled lines with colored crayons, thinking

hibit such gleams of intelligence that her work cannot but be interesting. She took the pointer again and pointed to "ran" for Mr. Kiesel. Then after seeing "You," she tried to write "You ran." Capital Y being too hard she was allowed to use the small letter. Of course she needed a reminder now and then, but it must always be borne in mind that we are dealing with a child whose faculties were totally undeveloped one year ago.

Edith pointed to "sat." Mr. Kiesel performed the action. She wrote "You sat," after pointing to the written form. [This lesson lasted thirty-five minutes before she showed any signs of fatigue.] After "You sat," she wrote, "You stood." She pointed to "ran." Golding was made to "sit;" we looked at Edith to see if she agreed to this. She took Golding by the sleeve and made her get up and run—writing "Golding sat," then correcting it, "Golding ran."

February 11, 1903.—To-day's lesson was a review, Mr. Kiesel wanting to see if Edith remembered such words as *cat, rat, horse*, etc. So the book, in which were pictures of these animals and their names, was just left on the table, and Edith, looking over the pages, wrote their different names on the blackboard. "Horse" was very difficult for her, so the slate-pencil was used. Little rubber animals were placed on a table. One at a time was held up, Edith quickly went to the book to verify her opinion, as it seemed, and pointed always to the proper picture. When a rubber man was held up she found there was no picture of that in the front of the book, so she turned the pages rapidly over until she found a man near the end of the book. She showed enthusiasm and great interest in this work. As an experiment she was shown a sheep—this was new. She was asked to point to its picture in the book. She found it by the written name. She could not write it, however, writing *sl*, but upon being given a model she made a very fair attempt.

Edith, with four other children, was shown some bright, new pictures of a sleeping dog, etc. She had forgotten "slept," but soon recollected it. She could always recognize pictures of the same animal in different books. She wrote "A dog slept," "A cat slept," "A boy slept," "A bird slept," "A cow slept," "A horse slept."

She did not do this work mechanically. She seemed to understand and think about everything she saw. After writing "A horse slept," the children erased all their work. Each name was written on the board. Edith sat in a chair and slept, then she went to the board and began to write "Edith," but when corrected wrote "I slept," others writing "Edith slept." Mr. Kiesel then sat in a chair and slept. Edith wrote, without help, "You slept." Her "You" was bad, but she soon improved it. Next, "Golding slept," "Young slept." Again all work was erased and four verbs were written this time—*ran, stood, sat, slept*. Edith demonstrated all four of them. Mr. Kiesel then took a rubber cow and made it run. Edith laughed, went to the board, and wrote "A cow ran." After hesitating a second and pointing to "ran" she sat in a chair, pointed to "sat," and wrote "A," but afterwards "I." This work was harder than the other lesson—having four verbs and combining different lessons. Before she had her name, Golding's, Miller's, and "You" in one lesson, with the animals in another lesson; now these are combined with a new verb in addition.

Next the page of pictures was changed and a little rubber pig stood on the table. Golding pointed to the written verb and Edith wrote "A pig stood." Mr. Kiesel sat in a chair and slept, but she had forgotten "you." This lesson lasted one hour.

At this point, Edith knows about twelve names of objects, and four verbs. Constant review keeps her memory strengthened. Several times there was an unsuccessful

attempt made to teach her *horse* and *sheep* (it will be observed that in a previous lesson she wrote *sheep* fairly well); for this reason we dropped these words for a while, for they were practically new. *H* and *p* troubled her. To-night an evening lesson was given. It was very simple. "A cat ran," "A cow ran." Edith and Golding wrote them on the board, erased them when finished, and then wrote from memory. The work was satisfactory.

February 12, 1903.—First lesson in spelling. This lesson was written on the board,

<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> A c a t r a t r a n </div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; font-size: 3em; line-height: 1;"> } </div> </div>	Golding and Edith were classed together because Edith was more at ease when working with a companion. Golding knew all the letters except "n." This was given her and the closest attention paid to each formation. Edith did very well. There were times when she would make the same mistakes with every spelling, but she tried hard.
---	--

Next lesson.

<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> A cat ran A rat ran </div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; font-size: 3em; line-height: 1;">) </div>	This time she had to review the letters separately, for they seemed to trouble her in combination. Again and again they were gone over with a slight improvement each time.
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NOTE.—Success depends on strict attention to every detail, otherwise efforts to teach would be futile, especially in teaching backward pupils.

THEODORE A. KIESEL,
Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

with my own views nor with the views of the school just reported on [Miss Garrett's], it has undoubtedly done a great work for the higher education of the deaf in America. I met several graduates from this College and was profoundly impressed with the width of their culture and views." Taking a general view of the education of the deaf in America he sums up the results of his observations as follows:

"1. Great freedom is given to teachers to do the work they have to do in the best possible way, according to their own lights; no hard and fast lines being drawn as to how this or that subject is to be taught.

"2. The general attitude of the inspectorate and the State department is one of sympathetic encouragement, and the teachers on the visit of an inspector go on with their work with confidence.

"3. The splendid equipment and staffing of the schools.

"4. The almost general relief of the children from the rough household work of the institution.

"5. The carrying on side by side of educational and industrial work from the age of twelve to nineteen or twenty years."

On this last point he remarks that up to the age of sixteen years, while the children in American schools for the deaf are, perhaps, a little more skilled in the use of language than those of English schools, their manual training and drawing are not as good. "So up to that age there is little advantage; but the years that follow mean everything to the American deaf child. The educational and industrial work going on together produces the very best results, and, compared with the English apprenticeship system, is superior simply on this account—that at the same time that a trade is being mastered the mind is not neglected. One reacts on and stimulates the other."

PEET, MARY TOLES. Verses. New York: The Fanwood Press. 1903. 16mo., pp. 188.

Loving filial hands have gathered into this little volume about fifty poems. The collection is far from complete, for Mrs. Peet thought too lightly of her poetic gift to preserve her verses, and it is only through friends who

have kept copies that her daughter has been able to **se**cure so many as are here published. Some of them, as "**T**houghts on Music," "**T**he Castle of Silence," "**D**ay **D**reams," and "**N**ature's Responses," are poems of high **i**ntrinsic merit; others written for birthdays, anniversaries, **a**nd other special occasions, are of value to friends; all are **g**raceful and musical—wonderfully so, when one **co**nsiders that to their writer sound was only a far distant **m**emory.

It is fitting that the book should bear the imprint of the "**F**anwood" press, for Fanwood was Mrs. Peet's home for **t**he greater part of her life. Its mechanical execution **r**e-
flects high credit upon the New York Institution.

SOLA, JOSE M. Método de Lectura para Sordo-Mudos. Libro primero. Tercera Edicion corregida y aumentada [Reading Method for Deaf-Mutes. Book I. Third edition revised and enlarged]. La Plata. 1894. 8vo., pp. 155.

— Nociones de Aritmetica para Sordo-Mudos. Libro primero [Ideas of Arithmetic for Deaf-Mutes. Book I]. La Plata. 1894.

These two best works for the elementary instruction of **t**he deaf in language and in arithmetic are the work of the **f**ounder of the La Plata and Santa Fe schools for the deaf **i**n the Argentine Republic, now director of the Santa Fe School. They are handsomely printed and illustrated with numerous engravings, some of them in colors.

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS: (published in 1902) Cambrian (Swansea, Wales), Michigan, New South Wales, Ohio; (published in 1903) American, Buenos Aires (for boys), Bristol (England), Hamburg (Germany), Lyons (France), London (England, Fitzroy Square), Montana, New York, Ontario, Reno Margulies, Sarah Fuller, South Carolina, Tokyo (Japan), Utah, Vänqrsborg (Sweden), Waratah (New South Wales), Washington Heights, Wright Oral.

E. A. F.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

American School.—Miss Mary A. Mann, for forty-five years a teacher in this School, from which she was graduated in 1847, died at Oakland, California, September 6, 1903, aged 75. Dr. Williams speaks of her as “a woman of rare good sense and sound judgment, a good disciplinarian, patient, persevering, vigorous, full of sympathy for her pupils, and very successful in advancing dull pupils.”

Arkansas Institute.—The appropriation bill passed by the last legislature was inadvertently detained by the enrolling committee of the senate until the twenty-day constitutional limit had expired, and, therefore, failed to become a law. The Institute was thus left without funds for the present year. A sufficient amount of money to pay salaries has been borrowed, and arrangements have been made with dealers to furnish supplies, so that the work of the School is going on as usual.

Ashtabula School.—A day-school has been opened at Ashtabula, Ohio, under the instruction of Mrs. Rosa Keeler, formerly of the New Jersey School. The school is held in the old laboratory room of the Division Street building.

Camberg Institution.—On the 5th of August last a monument to Baron Hugo von Schütz, founder of the Camberg (Hessen-Nassau, Germany) Institution, was unveiled. Baron von Schütz was a deaf-mute, educated at the Vienna Institution. He founded the Camberg Institution in 1817. The monument consists of a pedestal of polished granite, surmounted by a life-size bust of the Baron. Under the coat-of-arms of the Schütz family on the front of the pedestal is a carving in relief representing the Baron as teaching two children, with the legend: “Open thy mouth for the dumb.” Proverbs xxxi, 8.” The chief inscription reads: “Baron Hugo von Schütz, Founder of the Deaf-Mute Institution, 1780-1847.” The Director of the Institution, Mr. Wehrheim, in an address delivered on the occasion, said that this was the first monument ever erected to a

deaf-mute. He was not aware of the fine memorial to Laurent Clerc, at Hartford, erected by the deaf of America in 1874.

Central New York Institution.—Miss Mina A. Adams, Miss Alice Sommerville, and Miss Mary McCall Eccleston have resigned, the two former to be married, and Miss Eccleston to remain at home. They are succeeded by Miss Linda K. Miller, Miss Gustava Unkart, and Miss E. Belle Williams. Miss Unkart was trained at the Rhode Island School and Miss Williams at the Indiana School.

Georgia School.—Mr. C. R. McIver has resigned to become Superintendent of Public Schools in Graham, North Carolina, and is succeeded by Miss Elizabeth Freeman, who is a daughter of Mr. Samuel M. Freeman, and was a normal student at Gallaudet College last year. Miss May Clark, of Rome, Georgia, has been appointed instructor in drawing and wood-carving and physical culture.

A new dining-room and kitchen, to cost \$11,500, are in process of erection.

Illinois School.—The last legislature passed a law authorizing a change of name for the Institution, and it is now legally known as "The Illinois School for the Deaf."

The name of the weekly paper published at the School has been changed to *The Illinois Advance*. The paper was established as *The Deaf-Mute Advance* in 1870 by Mr. Frank Read, but the name was changed four years ago to *The New Era*.

La Plata Institution.—The Provincial Institution at La Plata, Argentine Republic, which was closed in 1900, has been reopened under the direction of Dr. Risso Patron. At present it has 35 pupils, all boys. It occupies a rented building, but will have a house of its own next year, and provision will be made for girls also. The Combined System of instruction is followed. Shoemaking, joinery, and cabinet-making are taught, and printing, lithography, and bookbinding are soon to be added, as the Province has given the Institution the shops and material for these in-

dustries belonging to a Provincial school of arts and trades that has been closed.

Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution.—The Institution celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its incorporation September 28, 1903, with appropriate exercises. The Right Reverend Bishop Colton was present and delivered an address. On the same day, at a meeting of the Board of Trustees, the Bishop was chosen a member of the Board and elected to the office of Vice-President.

Maryland School for Colored.—Miss Margaret Hauberg, B. A., a recent graduate of Gallaudet College, has been appointed a teacher in the place of Mr. Sowell, who resigned to teach in the Nebraska Institute.

Michigan School.—Miss Linda De Motte has resigned to teach in the Minnesota School, and Miss Mary Knickerbocker to retire from the work. Miss Ruth Leadbetter has been appointed a teacher in the Oral Department, and Miss Adda Hurd and Mr. Hugh Babcock, who are graduates of the School, teachers in the Manual Department.

Nebraska Institute.—Mr. James W. Sowell, M. A., late of the Maryland School for Colored Deaf, has been added to the corps of instructors.

New Brunswick School.—At the last session of the Provincial legislature it was enacted that the deaf of the Province should be educated at public expense and a *per capita* appropriation of \$165 was made for this purpose. The legislature made no provision for buildings, but individuals have purchased a fine building with fifteen acres of land. Mr. J. A. Weaver, formerly of the Margate, England, Institution, and more recently of the Halifax Institution, has been elected Principal. Mr. Weaver was the winner this year of the Braidwood gold medal offered by the British National Association of Teachers of the Deaf for the best essay on "The Ideal Teacher of the Deaf." There were three competitors for the medal.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—The name of *The Kelly Messenger* has been changed to *The Deaf Carolinian*.

Ohio Institution.—A class in cooking has been added to the industrial department.

Stade Institution.—Mr. Friedrich Werner, the author of “The German Method and the Classification of Deaf-Mutes According to Mental Ability,” reviewed in the March number of the *Annals* by Mr. Heidsiek and Miss Porter (“A Clear Voice from Across the Sea”), has been appointed Director of the Institution at Stade (Hanover, Germany), in which he was formerly an instructor.

Washington State School.—Mr. J. C. Kane and Miss Marion Shaffer, who have taught in the department of the feeble-minded for several years, have been transferred to the department for the deaf.

Western New York Institution.—Miss Harriet E. Hamilton, who has been a successful and beloved teacher in the Institution since its establishment in 1876, and who formerly taught for several years in the New York Institution, has resigned her position. Mr. Clayton L. McLaughlin, a graduate of this Institution and of the University of Rochester, has been appointed instructor in mathematics in the place of Miss Antonia B. Hopeman, who died during the last term.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Mattie Menefee, who last year was in training for the work, has been appointed a teacher in the primary department.

The trade of painting has been added to the industries taught.

Wisconsin School.—Miss Elizabeth Rhodes, who was trained at the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, has been appointed a teacher in the Oral Department, and Miss Delia Delight Rice, a graduate of the Normal School of Columbus, Ohio, teacher of the deaf-blind in place of Miss Hypatia Boyd, who resigned to be married.

Yorkshire Institution.—Mr. James Howard, who has been headmaster of the Yorkshire (England) Institution since the death of Dr. Charles Baker, in 1874, died September 18, 1903, aged 58. Mr. Howard began his work as

a teacher in the Edinburgh Institution, and was afterwards a missionary to the deaf in Glasgow. His administration of the Yorkshire Institution was efficient and able, and he was prominent in all the efforts to benefit the deaf of England, that have resulted in so much progress within recent years.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Deaf Doctor of Philosophy.—The German *Blätter für Taubstummenebildung* for August 15, 1903, has an interesting sketch of the education of Walter Kuntze, who has recently received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the University of Leipsic. He was so deaf from birth that easy communication was possible only by means of hearing tubes. His early education was, therefore, carried on by teachers of the deaf, first by a private tutor and afterwards in the schools for the deaf at Brunswick and Hildesheim.

He became so skilful in speech-reading and progressed so rapidly in his studies that in a few years he was able to enter a Latin school of high standing at Halle. For a time his studies were interrupted by poor health, and he devoted himself to agriculture. When he returned to his first love, the subject of the thesis which won for him his doctor's degree showed that his agricultural pursuits were intellectual as well as practical. The subject was "Investigations concerning the composition of the German and American red clover and of the hairy vetch and the common vetch during the various stages of their growth, and the influence of certain fertilizers upon the composition of vetches." The thesis has been published, and is spoken of with commendation by a professional writer in a Lübeck periodical of agriculture and gardening.

Dr. Kuntze is not, as some newspapers have stated, the only deaf, or partly deaf, man who has received the degree of Ph. D. from a German University. In 1870, Dr. Gideon

S. Moore, an American, formerly a pupil in Mr. David Bartlett's private school, received that degree *summa cum Laude* from the University of Heidelberg.

Death of Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière.—Dr. Ladreit de Lacharrière, physician of the National Institution for Deaf-Mutes in Paris from 1863 to 1899, died August 4, 1903, aged 70. His elaborate preface to Goguillot's "Comment on fait parler les Sourds-Muets," published in 1889, showed that he had made a careful study of the causes and consequences of deafness. He was the organizer and president of the Paris Congress of 1900; the arbitrary way in which he controlled its proceedings astonished the American delegates, but seemed to meet the approval of the majority of the Congress. He was a man of high social position and eminent in his profession, and received many decorations and other marks of distinction from his own and foreign governments. He was a warm-hearted friend of the deaf, retaining his interest in them after they left school and often assisting them in poverty and illness, so that his death is sincerely mourned by the deaf people of Paris.

Conference of the British Association of Teachers.—The Fourth Biennial Conference of the National (British) Association of Teachers of the Deaf was held in London, July 7-10, 1903. The attendance from all parts of the United Kingdom was large, and from abroad were Mr. Samuel Watson, Principal of the New South Wales Institution, and Mr. T. A. Walsh, of Namur, Belgium.

The Conference was welcomed by an address from the Lord Mayor of London, Sir Marcus Samuel, to which Dr. Richard Elliott, Chairman of the Association, made an appropriate response.

The subjects of the papers read were as follows: "General Address," by Dr. Elliott, of Margate; "The Working of the Blind and Deaf Children Act, 1893," by Mr. E. V. Greatbatch, of Stoke; "The Need of Legislation in Connection with the

Education of the Deaf of Ireland," by Mr. J. Beattie, of Belfast; "Manual Training for Girls," by Miss Hare, of Brighton, and Miss H. L. M'Kenzie, of London; "Lessons to be Learned from American Methods of Industrial Training for the Deaf," by Mr. W. Nelson, of Manchester; "David Brown M'Lean, the Scotch Blind Deaf-Mute Boy, and How He is Educated," by Mr. W. H. Illingworth, of Edinburgh.

An interesting feature of the Conference was a joint meeting with the Otological Society of the United Kingdom, under the chairmanship of Professor Urban Pritchard, M. D. At this meeting "The Method of Dealing with and Developing the Residual Hearing Power and Speech of the Deaf" was discussed, both from the medical and pedagogical points of view; papers on the subject being read by Dr. J. Kerr Love, of Glasgow, Dr. Wm. Permewan, of Liverpool, Mr. W. H. Addison, of Glasgow, and Mr. A. J. Story, of Stoke.

A full report of the Proceedings is to be published in the form of a special number of "The Teacher of the Deaf," and may be obtained for 63 cents from Mr. Frank Driscoll, 35 Grange Road, Ilford, Essex, England, or from Miss Susanna E. Hull, Woodvale, Bexley, Kent, England.

Congress of the British Deaf and Dumb Association.—The Eighth Biennial Congress of the British Deaf and Dumb Association was held in London, July 27–31, 1903. The attendance was large. The Rev. W. B. Sleight, President of the Association, delivered an address, and papers were read on "Trades for the Deaf," by Mr. W. M'Candlish, of Hull; "The Co-operation of the Deaf in Business," by Mr. Geo. Frankland, of London; "Some Suggestions towards a Better Co-operation of Missions," by Mr. J. Hepworth, of Cardiff; "The Dorking Home for Deaf Men," by Mr. J. May, of Dorking; "The Formation of Branches in Connection with the British Deaf and Dumb Association," by Mr. W. E. Harris, of Belfast; "Gardening as an Occupation for Ladies," by Miss Sieveking, of Swanley; "The Mental

Development of the Orally and Manually Taught Deaf," by the Rev. A. H. Payne, M. A., of London; "After-care Committees for Deaf Pupils Leaving School," by Mr. J. Muir, of Blackburn; "Home and Foreign Mission Work and the Training of Missionaries," by Mr. F. Maginn, of Belfast, and "The Tramp Problem," by Mr. A. Welsh, of Dundee.

Dr. A. Eichholz, Inspector of Oral Schools for the Deaf, Mr. E. Townsend, of the Birmingham Institution, and Mr. A. M. Sleight, of the Brighton Institution, were present and took part in the discussion of the papers read by Mr. Payne and Mr. Muir. The Lord Bishop of Barrow-in-Furness preached a sermon, and expressed his hearty acquiescence in the opinion of the Executive Committee that "the deaf, by whatever system they may have been educated, will always require special missions organized in their behalf, of the absolute necessity of which there can be no doubt."

The Secretary reported that he had received a communication from the Home Office informing him that the petition recently presented to the King (published in the March number of the *Annals*, page 177) had been duly considered by the Education Departments of the United Kingdom, but that they had not been able to advise the general use of the system suggested.

The following resolution, offered by Mr. F. Maginn, was unanimously adopted:

The British Deaf and Dumb Association in Congress assembled again declare that no simple method of instruction is sufficient for the development of all the capabilities of the deaf and dumb; that a large proportion of the deaf lack the capacity to acquire in any degree what can be called successful lip-reading; that a judicious use of the sign language and manual alphabet is of great benefit in the education of the deaf; and that the rejection of these exerts a narrowing influence on their intellectual development. The Congress respectfully asks, therefore, that in any schemes which may be considered by the Board of Education, either in reference to the primary or higher education of the deaf and dumb, the views here given expression may receive full and attentive consideration.

The St. Louis Exposition.—Mr. J. L. Smith, of Minnesota, President of the National Association of the Deaf, announces that the Executive Committee of that Association has decided to invite the deaf of other countries to attend an International Congress of the Deaf to be held under the auspices of the Association at some time during the Exposition next summer. A committee consisting of Mr. Smith, Mr. T. F. Fox, of New York, and Mr. G. W. Veditz, of Colorado, has charge of the programme of exercises.

Miss Helen Keller, her mother, and Miss Sullivan will be the guests of the Exposition for a week in October, 1904, and the 18th day of that month will be known as "Helen Keller Day."

Proceedings of the Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association.—The proceedings of the meeting in Boston last summer are soon to be published in pamphlet form. Copies may be obtained at the price of ten cents each from Mr. Erwin Shepard, General Secretary of the Association, Winona, Minnesota.

AMERICAN ANNALS
OF
THE DEAF,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

R. O. JOHNSON, OF INDIANA, F. D. CLARKE, OF
MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA,
A. L. E. CROUTER, OF PENNSYLVANIA,
AND J. W. JONES, OF OHIO,

Committee of the Conference.

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AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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MISSIONARY WORK.

“ Do you use raised letters ? ” “ Is vocal music taught in your school ? ” “ Are not the deaf, as a class, very suspicious and ill-tempered ? ”

To these and similarly absurd questions the teacher of the deaf, all the year round, but especially during the summer outing, must give soft answers that by no means turn away his inward wrath at the senselessness of the queries. To the gushing request sure to follow—“ Do tell us just how you teach the deaf ”—he is in no mood to yield gracious compliance. Some of us when besought to unfold the mysteries of deaf-mute instruction have the sinful habit of replying lightly : “ Oh, it’s too long a story. It would bore you to death if I undertook to tell you.” What we really mean is that it bores *us* extremely to “ talk shop ” in holiday time. As a matter of fact outsiders are always interested in hearing the details of our daily work, as we all know very well. Slightly nagged by conscience, we may follow up our refusal by a fluent promise to send the inquirer, later, books and papers that will “ describe fully ” the various methods of deaf-mute instruction. Sometimes we forward these illuminating documents ; oftener we don’t.

’Tis a pity that conscience seldom makes us think down

to the bed-rock of ethics in this matter of wide-spread ignorance concerning the deaf and their special needs. Two points in particular we should always remember: First, the State, for its own best interests, educates its deaf children. The majority of our schools are supported by taxation. Every citizen, therefore, has a perfect right, even by asking fool questions, to find out all he desires to know concerning the instruction given in the State schools. Secondly, our attitude in this matter of dissipating popular ignorance in regard to our work may make or mar the life career of some deaf person. The State does much for its deaf wards, but private individuals can do more. "The gift without the giver is bare." Every single person, properly informed by us, will probably at some time during his life have it in his power to give substantial, intelligent aid to some deaf child or adult.

I have in mind now the case of a deaf country girl—an orphan in poor circumstances. She is this winter enjoying a course at Drexel Institute, which will make her self-supporting. The opportunity came to her as the direct result of a few talks on a hotel piazza between a lady of wealth and a teacher of the deaf. The teacher had never seen the girl. The lady had seen her often enough, but had felt no special interest in her until after the series of talks with the teacher. I have known of several similar cases. Direct gifts to schools often spring from interest aroused by personal intercourse with educators of the deaf. Such gifts are much to be desired. An endowment is a very handy thing to have, adding greatly to the efficiency of even the best-equipped State school. Without toadying or time-serving, it is quite possible and perfectly legitimate for us to turn the eyes of Mammon toward the needs of the deaf whenever and wherever we have an opportunity to do so. But our motive must be single—a pure, disinterested, genuine desire to promote the welfare of the deaf wherever found.

If we seek to exploit ourselves we shall fail—and rightly—either to help the deaf or to add a single cubit to the stature of our own importance.

Much, too, depends upon the manner in which we give information concerning our work. We are all, alas! familiar with the pushing, ill-bred woman teacher who fills space with her strident tones as she discourses on “the work.” She is a horror. Still less endurable is the teacher who poses—the sentimentalist whose professed devotion to her schoolroom is so intense that she declares herself homesick for it even while recuperating (she’s invariably an invalid) at the mountains or the seashore. Heaven itself, she murmurs rapturously (with a curious disregard of the sacred promise, “The ears of the deaf shall be unstopped”), would be for her incomplete without a class of deaf children to teach.

These two types have made the rank and file of us somewhat averse to talking freely about our work to outsiders. We neither desire to preach in loud-mouthed, vulgar fashion in this world, nor to teach, after any fashion, in the next.

Questions concerning deaf-mute instruction are not uniformly idiotic. Sometimes the tables are turned, and it is the teacher, ignorant of certain fundamental facts of his profession, who is made to appear foolish. The questioner, fairly well-informed, alert, intelligent, shows a most alarming and embarrassing appetite for statistics which the teacher is wholly unable to supply on short notice. In rapid succession irritating questions like these are fired:

“How many deaf persons are there in the United States?” “How many schools for the deaf?” “What percentage of the deaf are taught by speech?” “By the combined system?” “What artificial cause most often produces deafness?” (here one thanks the Lord for the scourge of scarlet fever), and “What proportion of your pupils are

harmless summer boarder, who happens to be also a teacher of the deaf, usually dissipates these fears and dire suspicions. Most of us have assisted in placing country children in State schools. The following year we go back, perhaps, and invariably find both parents and children proudly happy in their connection with the school.

Occasionally the teacher of the deaf must make himself "a little brother of the rich," in order that he may rebuke, if not mend, the bad manners of some among them toward the deaf. The cruelly thoughtless, not to say insolent, way in which some otherwise well bred "nice people" often discuss deaf persons in their presence is, to put the matter mildly, outrageously vulgar. The deaf—most of them sensitive persons with nervous systems ever alert—always know when they are being talked about. Some of the more finely organized among them frequently know even—neither by hearing nor lip-reading, but through some far more subtle brain process that we ken not—the subject of a conversation wholly unconnected with themselves carried on in their presence. Many times I have known that great scholar, that "grand old man," the late Professor Samuel Porter, to join suddenly by making a telling comment or a good-humored thrust in a conversation, the subject of which had not been given him either by hearing, signs, or face-reading. His very presence even—beautiful as that presence ever was—had been for the time forgotten by the speakers.

The fact that comments made in their presence upon the deaf by hearing people are usually complimentary, by no means lessens to the deaf the uncomfortable sensation of feeling themselves talked about. Even our deaf babies in the kindergarten object to being talked over, and cast anxious glances at the group of teachers who may be dividing or grading them for a new term's work. What,

then, must be the feelings of a sensitive, refined, deaf lady who, at a full dinner table ('tis a scene I've more than once witnessed), knows that she is the subject of a general conversation? Upon one such occasion, I remember, the lady's beautiful eyes, her hair, her taste in dress, and her charming manner, were all commented upon. Her cheeks grew scarlet. Her eyes were downcast, but, she confessed afterward, tears were very near. A teacher of the deaf, who happened to be present, could stand it no longer. "For heaven's sake, stop!" she cried. "Don't you know the deaf always *feel* conversation? Would any one of you regard such personal talk as anything but an insult?" This bombshell was followed by a dead silence. The deaf lady was more uncomfortable than ever. The teacher knew that she had made a bad matter worse by her rude, ill-timed protest, and was miserable accordingly.

With more tact and discretion, though, than this teacher showed, we may, each of us, do much to prevent thoughtless comment that too often stings and wounds an almost invariably well-bred and sensitive class of people.

We meet many clergymen and Sunday-school workers in summer. The church, no less than the world, sometimes stands in need of admonition as regards its attitude toward the deaf. Outside the Catholic church, which in its care for all its children puts Protestant sects to shame, how many pastors ever concern themselves, unasked, with the spiritual needs of the deaf sheep in their flocks? From some institutions deaf pupils are dragged (I use the word advisedly) to hearing churches each Sunday where they must sit as still as possible through a long and, to them, almost unintelligible service. Were they sure to be invited to the picnics and other church merry-makings the martyrdom of these deaf innocents might be slightly lessened. But, as a rule, these deaf children are not included in any of the Sunday-school or church good times. As one disconsolate little semi-mute from a barren home

said to me: "I went to my sister's Sunday-school Christmas-tree, but there wa'n't nothing on it for me."

The sister's Sunday-school teacher was present at the festival and recognized the deaf child. It would have been a very easy and, to my mind, justifiable piece of sleight-of-hand for her to smuggle an extra box of candy onto the tree for the little deaf girl. Or she might have begged or appropriated a toy from the superfluous gifts bestowed upon some more fortunate child. Probably the teacher would have done something of this sort—if she had thought of it. And that should be—may be, without either affectation, impertinence, or conceit—a large part of our life work, to make hearing people think and practice right and duty and reason toward the deaf whenever and wherever they are brought into contact with them. Of course there is another side—the proper attitude of the deaf toward hearing people. But with that phase of the subject we are not now dealing.

Deaf-mutes living in country places are cut off from the religious services for the deaf held regularly in a few cities and occasionally in others by deaf preachers. A system of correspondence, modeled perhaps on the work of the "Sunshine Clubs," between members of the city religious societies of the deaf and individual, isolated deaf persons, would bring brightness into many dull, lonely lives. Such an organization, too, would aid and encourage greatly the special pastors of the deaf, and to those good men who are following in the footsteps of Thomas Gallaudet and Henry Winter Syle every atom of help which we can give is surely due.

Many teachers travel in summer. There is little time to write letters when one is sight-seeing, yet I know of one teacher in the habit of going to Europe every year or two who manages to send to some of her pupils descriptive letters of great interest. These letters with their strange postmarks are carefully treasured by the recipi-

ents. Under their spell geography and history become romance. "The great round world" seems more real to one who has received a letter from the Antipodes. The same teacher sends to her deaf as well as to her hearing friends many picture postals that delight their hearts. Last summer one little deaf girl was made happy by a letter describing Cripple Creek, that wonderful town which, like an enchanted city, sprang from the steep mountain-side almost in a day. We cannot all write to our pupils from Europe or Colorado. But there are hundreds of places nearer home which, by giving half an hour's time, we can make equally valuable and interesting to them. The reverence of deaf children for "a letter" and their joy in receiving one are familiar to us all—so familiar, in fact, that we are apt to lose sight of the pathos involved in their mental attitude.

Many of us object—and in a certain sense rightly enough—to the term "Missionary work," often applied to our labors. The phrase, "freeing an imprisoned soul," has become shop-worn in our ears from its over-use by sentimental visitors. We say, or think if we do not say it, that we are not "missionaries." We are only ordinary, honest workmen engaged by the year, and welcoming pay-day in our hearts just as workmen, from the humblest scrub-boy up to Shakespeare, always have welcomed pay-day since the wage system for muscle or brain labor first began. We don't, we say angrily to ourselves, "free souls." We merely teach the English language, and along with it, often blunderingly enough, a few moral and spiritual truths, or what seem to be truths.

And yet—sometimes on a graduating day when our stalwart young men with brave, intelligent faces, and our winsome young women, in their parting finery, stand around us and speak or spell loving, grateful words, there comes to us a vision of another day, which seems far enough off now.

the entrance examinations to Gallaudet upon graduation from their respective schools. And all this not because of inherited mental dullness, not because of any wholly wrong method of education, not because of incompetent teachers, not because of the lack of a national college for the deaf, but solely because of economy. It may be false economy, and it may not. It is not the object of this paper to argue that question.

To educate the deaf in Europe is altogether too expensive; hence the necessity of limiting the number of years that a pupil may attend school. When we consider that the children enter school at a very early age (which is prescribed by law), before their minds are ripe enough to reason or receive instruction, and graduate at about fifteen years of age, the reason for this limited knowledge on the part of the graduates is very apparent.

To understand this a brief statement of the conditions under which the deaf are educated in some countries in Europe may not be amiss. Sweden may serve as an example.

That country is divided into a certain number of school districts. Each district has two schools for the education of the deaf, one oral and one manual school. These two schools in each district are managed by one board of trustees, consisting of seven members. They are elected by county commissions or city councils, as the case may be, and serve without pay. Otherwise there is no relation between the two schools. Each has its own buildings, superintendent, corps of instructors, and method of instruction.

Now we come to the most interesting part of this subject, namely, the expenses of running these institutions. The table given below is taken from the report of the Third School District, in Sweden, for the school year 1902-'03. It must be borne in mind that the sums here put down indicate *kronor* (which we may translate *crowns*)

and *öre*, and not dollars and cents. Exchanged into American money the cost of maintaining these schools would not be great. But since the purchasing power of a crown in Sweden is in many cases about the same as that of a dollar in this country, and since there are fewer crowns there than dollars here in proportion to the population, the cost of educating the deaf in Sweden is very great indeed, and the conditions are about the same in other European countries.

The oral school at Lund had sixty-four pupils during the school year of nine months. The expenditures of this school were as follows:

<i>Buildings.</i>		<i>Crowns.</i>
For ordinary repairs.....		2, 000
“ furnishings.....		1, 000
“ school supplies.....		700

<i>Salaries.</i>		
“ superintendent, including residence, fuel, and vegetable garden.		4, 000
“ four teachers @ 2,100		8, 400
“ one teacher.....		1, 800
“ house rent and fuel for five teachers @ 600.....		3, 000
“ three teachers @ 1,400....		4, 200
“ one teacher.....		1, 000
“ house rent and fuel for four teachers @ 400.....		1, 600
“ purchasing agent.....		1, 250
“ auditor.....		100
“ instructor in manual training.....		1, 250
“ instructor in sewing and dressmaking.....		1, 250
“ art teacher.....		300
“ gymnastic instructor.....		350
“ physician ..		240
“ minister for preparing children for confirmation.....		300
“ instruction in domestic economy		100
“ matron.....		500
“ watchman, with residence and fuel.....		640
“ instruction in gardening		100
“ five attendants @ 132.....		660
“ two supervisors @ 250		500
“ janitor		275

called to the unfinished sentences. She at once hastened to complete her work.

This lesson over, she practiced "horse" and "sheep," her writing being better than before. *R* alone she makes right, but when combined, as in "horse," it is confused; the same is true of *h*.

For Monday Edith will have a new lesson, as she would lose interest if kept at the same old one. Her new lesson involves the same letters, with some new ones in new words. If she learns these she will have no trouble in remembering *cat*, *rat*, *cow*, and *ran* of her last lesson.

Her lesson for Monday was :

A man sat.	Old letters.	New letters.
A girl sat.	a t c.	m s.
A cat sat.	n r.	g l.

This lesson was written on the board and Edith told to spell. She knew all of the old letters, but, of course, not the new ones. She erased and wrote :

m a n
g i r l
s a t

Golding was called first and knew how to spell *man* with the manual alphabet. Edith had to be taught *m*. This was hard, for her fingers were stiff and *m* seemed harder than *n*. She did not learn it in this lesson.

They were taught the meaning of their lesson by means of the pictures used in previous lessons. This work was not new, but their memory needed refreshing.

In spelling *cow*, *ran*, *cat*, *rat*, *man*, *girl*, *sat*, Edith remembered all the letters except *o* and *w*. Then she was taught to spell the words in her new lesson. It was very difficult to make her spell *man*. The muscles of her hand seemed to refuse to respond. She tried to assist her fingers by means of her other hand, but after several attempts was obliged to give it up. So she went on to *girl* ;

EDITH'S FIRST TWO YEARS AT SCHOOL.*—II.

(*Miss Taliaferro's Journal, continued.*)

February 13, 1903.—The morning after the first evening lesson, Edith, on being asked to produce the paper on which her lesson was prepared, held it up gleefully, as if to say, "I have studied my lesson." She was told to read it awhile, and did so. Then it was laid on a table near enough for her to glance at it should she forget anything. (Her teacher allows beginners to do this for a few weeks, until they become familiar with the work and have ideas of a home lesson. Soon they are able to write their lessons unaided.) Once Edith left her place to glance at the tiny lesson paper, but changed her mind and sat down again without reading.

She wrote:

A cat ran.

A cow

By this time the paper had been placed upon the desk to see what she would do. She walked to the desk, but she was prevented from seeing it and told to try to finish it first. She went back to her place cheerfully. She seemed to have acquired a certain dignity, if only in her own estimation, and her slate and pencil were the objects which helped to make her as the other children.

Her finished lesson read:

A cat ran	}	The original lesson being	{	A cat ran
A cow				A rat ran
A rat				A cow ran

The gleam of originality and independence in placing the objects as her mind directed were pleasing features of this "first studied home lesson." Her attention was

* Continued from the *Annals* for November, 1903, Vol. XLVIII, p. 483.

We changed the verb, showing a man in sitting posture. We showed a second picture of a man, and Edith picked out the rubber man, but could not demonstrate the verb. She started to write *r*, but seeing displeasure in her teacher's face she wrote "sat." A bird was pointed to and she smilingly picked up a little tin bird and put it in her hand to show that it was sitting. (All this time Edith is using correct signs for objects and actions. These have not been taught her but she learned them from the other children with whom she plays.) Next she was given the picture of a horse. After hesitating a little she picked up the rubber model and made it run. Then we waited to see what would follow, for it will be remembered that this was one of her difficult words. She started to write it correctly, and with a tiny mistake finished a pretty plain "horse." The verb had to be demonstrated again, after which she wrote correctly. They then looked at a dog (sitting), but Edith did not find the model this time. We have a rubber pug, which may account for her inability to find it.

An evening lesson: A man ran. A girl sat. A boy ran. A boy sat. Edith was told to demonstrate each sentence by finding the model, etc. When she failed Golding helped her. They sometimes had to receive help.

Mr. Kiesel wrote their lesson very carefully, letting them watch him. As each child received her paper they were made to review the sentences so as to be sure of them.

February 18.—Edith forgot to bring her paper back, or lost it this morning. She did not do well to-day, so was given the same lesson over. She prepared it in a few minutes, and will have it again to-morrow. She needs a little change.

NOTE.—If a child begins to tire or gets careless, give him something else to do. That will help him pass the time and freshen him up—kindergarten work, a picture book, or anything else that will interest him. School and kindergarten work combined produce excellent results.

An old calendar was used this morning. The children cut out the numbers. This done, they looked at the blackboard, on which were written the numbers from one to ten. They arranged other cut-out numbers in proper order on their papers, and then pasted them.

Edith's work was unusually good to-day. She is not very deft with the scissors, but with little assistance she cut very well and found the proper numbers nearly every time. She will not work rapidly; perhaps it is not her nature to be quick. However, if we can obtain accuracy the speed will come later on.

February 24.—To-day we had review, using paper and pencil instead of chalk. The children will soon be able to copy their own lessons for evening work, for it is not well for them to depend too much upon the teacher. To-day new pictures of the same animals, in many different positions, were shown the children to see if they could pick out the correct one. At first Edith did not seem to pick up the work just where she had left off, but after her first error—writing *sat* for *stood*—she did well, talking now and then, and making very fair and neat work on her paper. But there was a great difficulty, seemingly impossible to overcome. She could not be made to work even fairly rapidly, and if she made a mistake she would stop to grieve over it. She needed unusual urging to keep on, but it was the day after a holiday and we had to consider this fact. When she did well she was praised; then she worked beautifully for a time. When she seemed to tire we praised her again, with the same good results. Golding was naughty, so did not work with Edith. To our surprise she did better alone, whereas always before she had worked better with company.

February 26.—This morning, after Edith and Golding recited their evening lesson, three verbs—*stood, ran, sat*—were written on the board, and then books were given the children to look up pictures which represented the action

of each verb. Golding turned the leaves, pausing every now and then to ask Edith what this or that picture represented. Edith would get up and perform the action which was illustrated in the picture.

NOTE.—Looking at pictures together with action work, or rather play, always interests children, and helps make them observe and think.

A picture of a dog running (from “Far and Near”) was shown to-day. Edith pointed out the correct verb on the board, and hastened to illustrate by running and making the sign for dog. She started to write incorrectly, when another book was brought and a dog pointed out. She then made a gesture, as if to say, “How stupid,” and wrote correctly. She was a little confused as to the verb, but after a few questions corrected her mistakes. She then looked at a little boy leaning against a counter. When asked what he was doing she pointed to the word “stood,” and wrote without hesitation, “A boy stood.” In the same way she wrote, “A cat sat,” murmuring “kitty,” “kitty.” We showed her a new picture of little pigs running around a pole. She was not confused, but wrote, “A pig ran.” Again a new picture—(and Edith takes it as a matter of course)—“A horse stood.” In the meantime Golding has been continually progressing. She is bright and neat, seldom forgets, and when Edith is in a good humor seems to be just the child to be taught in company with the other.

Now the word *baby* was written on the board. This had been given Edith once many weeks ago. To-day she made the sign as soon as she saw the word. The word was erased and a picture of a baby sitting was showed to her. She signed it and began to write. After *ba* she stopped and started to go away. The transition from *ba* to *b* again was too much for her, so a slate pencil was used and she traced over the word. After some practice in this she wrote the word alone. Then evening work was

assigned: "A horse stood. A pig ran. A baby sat." Edith spelled them on her fingers, not hesitatingly, slowly, awkwardly, but without effort; smoothly, stopping only for *y* in *baby*, for which she made *g*—a very natural error, since *y* and *g* are both finished below the line and look much alike.

March 1.—To-day Edith forgot her lesson. The morning was spent in drill work. The same lesson was assigned for to-morrow. For a few days she will be given new names in combination with old verbs.

This morning Edith was given some new pictures—a sleeping baby, woman, sheep, horse—to look at. Upon the board many words were written of which she made copies. *Baby* was first. She wrote "boby." After tracing a few times she wrote "baby" excellently. In the same way she wrote "woman" and "sheep," showing decided improvement in each copy. In the word "sheep" she has always had trouble with *p*, making *p*. After tracing she made it very well. When she came to write *pig* she did not write, as before, *pg*, but *pig*. This was encouraging after so many days of persistently writing *p*. When she wrote "slept" she wrote it "shept," showing that her mind was not entirely free from the image "sheep." This was corrected and read, and then copied very well.

The verb "slept" is not entirely new to Edith; she has had it before, as was recorded in the first of these notes. But the three verbs which she has been having (*sat, ran, stood*), were enough to carry at one time. Even now, when she is ready to resume *slept* and *read*, she will not be given them in her lessons. After several daily lessons on the new objects she will have them in her evening lessons. Then she will gradually have a new verb, perhaps one or more at a time. In this way she will

have nothing new in her evening home lessons, but will thoroughly understand and be familiar with each step. Her work shows progress, and inspires confidence in the opinion that there will be no standstills now or in the future.

NOTE.—To secure best results one should go “slow but sure,” and feel the way step by step.

March 3.—Yesterday afternoon the evening lesson for Edith and Golding was “A bird sat. A pig ran. A man stood.” Edith understood all; she knew the meaning of each word. She picked out a picture for every name and performed the actions indicated by the verbs. This morning she came into the room with the slip of paper in her hand, evidently expecting to be called upon to give it up. But when she began to write she paused and looked longingly at the table where her paper lay and then at her teacher to see what he would do. Finding he had no objections, she summoned courage, arose, stole to the table and read the paper carefully, then wrote one sentence at a time on her slate. After the first she went to the table again and memorized another. Then she returned and got the last sentence. The lesson finished she marched triumphantly to the desk where her teacher sat. He read the slate and gently patted her on the back. Then he cleared the slate and held the paper while she read the whole lesson twice. She then took her seat and wrote the entire lesson. We noticed when she took her seat she never once looked up until her writing was complete. Her work was correct and neatly done.

NOTE.—This shows that a child of meagre intellect can succeed, if patience be exercised and proper methods pursued.

On the board was written “cow, horse, dog, sheep, boy, woman, baby, bird, and cat.” An open book lay on the table with pictures of the objects, not however in the order named. Edith was able to find each object until she came

to *sheep*. This puzzled her and also the two other children. Again she had a little trouble with "*boy*," but we thought her inability to associate the words on the board with the objects in the book was due to the pictures and not to her, for she always makes the correct sign. Her teacher then pointed to a baby sleeping and told her to point out the proper name on the board. This she did without hesitation, and wrote "A baby," but went astray on "slept," persisting in "*sh*." She looked at a model then and quickly ran laughingly to the board, erased her poor attempt, and wrote very nicely "slept." Next she looked at the picture of a dog, then pointed to the written word as much as to say "That, of course," and wrote "A dog slept," making the sign for *slept* as she began to write. The signs are always correct, but are of her own getting entirely. Now, at this point, she was allowed to choose her own picture; she took "cat." Then again a picture of a boy was pointed out by the teacher; this confused the children, for the boy was so covered with quilts they could not tell him from a man, woman, or baby. When "woman" was given Edith covered herself with glory, for she wrote without help or hesitation, and with neatness and rapidity. The same with "sheep." She knew and identified it at once. This is where she was confused in the first part of the lesson.

When Edith fails to know what is asked of her, her teacher never puts her to shame or makes her an object of ridicule, but passes to another child after the first has had a fair chance. Nothing is allowed that tends in any way to discourage a child; on the other hand, when a child responds quickly he is praised and commended.

A picture of a man reading was now shown. They made the sign for *man*, the teacher put the verb on the board, and Edith wrote at once, "A man read," just as the others did. Next she looked at a girl reading. She wrote *gig* for *girl*, but when she saw the old pictures to

which she had turned so many times before, she wrote "A girl read." Little print pictures are always as different as it is possible to imagine, and a girl in a reading posture will be totally different from one running, standing, etc., as the case may be, for the picture on one page may come from the back of a magazine, while the one on the other is from a child's story book. Thus when Edith is able to identify each picture she shows that her mind is strengthening. She does not become utterly lost when she sees a picture entirely new, both in the action depicted and the person illustrated.

March 4.—Day before yesterday Edith was given for her evening lesson five sentences: "A woman stood. A baby sat. A sheep ran. A horse stood. A girl sat." As usual she was called upon to search out pictures for objects in the lesson and at the same time to perform the indicated actions of the verbs. But strange to say she had forgotten almost all the names and verbs nor could she spell more than a word or two.

Apparently there was no explanation for this, unless she was tired or pretending ignorance. True, the lesson contained two sentences more than the usual number, but this does not furnish a reasonable solution, since all the words were familiar to her. However, when a child is tired, inattentive or contrary, there is nothing to do but stop teaching him for a while. Still, this was not the case with Edith. She seemed earnest and attentive, trying hard. This, too, is not the first time she has behaved so. Some days she is unable to do anything; all of her powers seem suddenly arrested. It must be borne in mind that at the beginning of her school life, her intellectual development was so entirely arrested that a very long time will be required to overcome the difficulty. Our chief aim is to cultivate her memory. Her salvation lies in a long, elaborate, thorough training.

Edith had the same lesson for last evening, and in the

afternoon she spelled and memorized it. When she read the sentence "A woman stood," she made the sign for *woman*, and when she came to the verb hesitated for a moment, then sprang to her feet as quick as thought, and holding her dress back bent to see if she was surely on her feet. After this she stretched herself up to her full height and stood still and straight as a statue. Then she performed the action represented by the other verbs without a mistake.

March 6.—Before taking up the new game selected for to-day the sentences to be used were reviewed to see if Edith could distinguish each object and action by means of one book we use almost daily. After recess, for further drill a number of rubber animals and other objects were placed on a table, and she and Golding were required to write their respective names on the board. Edith did her work remarkably well and with very little hesitation. She has become unusually neat, a pleasing feature which did not at first mark her work. The list consisted of—

A dog.	A sheep.	A rat.	A cow.
A man.	A rat.	A baby.	A horse.
A dog.	A pig.	A boy.	A cat.
A woman.	A bird.	A hen.	A girl.

Many slips of paper were cut out on which were written the simple sentences the children are accustomed to. From these slips each child was allowed to draw one, read it, pick out the object, and make it perform the action which they expressed on the paper. Never before had they had such real fun so legitimately in school. The atmosphere of sport about the game attracted and held their attention. The lesson was really an old lesson in disguise, but the enjoyment they got out of it made it seem new and interesting. The excitement of drawing a slip of paper of whose contents they were totally ignorant was the stimulus to this game. Golding drew a slip upon

which was written "A baby stood." After they had carefully looked for a baby on the table both faces expressed consternation, for no baby was there. When the desired article was brought forth they turned to the board and wrote "A baby stood." Once Edith did not know hers—"A boy read"—so before she had time to get discouraged Golding and her teacher helped her out of the difficulty. Golding drew "A pig slept." When she demonstrated the action and put the little pig to sleep she wrote "A pig baby." When next Golding drew "A baby read," and put a rubber baby up before a book, Edith seemed to consider it very comical, and leaned against the wall laughing.

THEODORE A. KIESEL,
Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

THE EVOLUTION FROM "ASYLUM" TO "SCHOOL" IN NORWAY.

THE number of the *Annals* for September last had an article on the theme "Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind not Charitable Institutions." I hope that the following few facts may be elucidative as to the changes of public opinion in a European country concerning the education of the deaf.

In Norway the first school (governmental) was established in 1825 in consequence of a provision of 1824. This school was in the first period of its existence named sometimes an "*anstalt*" and sometimes an "*institut*" (in the plural *anstalter*, *instituter*), the former word meaning something between an asylum and an institution. The education not being regulated by law, the expenses were paid partly by the parents of the pupils, partly by

grants from the state treasury, and partly by voluntary appropriations from the counties, townships, and cities. Poor parents were aided by the Poor-Law Boards. In the *Storting* (National Assembly) such matters were considered by the Budget Committee.

When in 1848 and 1850 new schools—private with state aid—were started, they were named "*instituter*."

In 1877 a Royal Commission was charged with the question of compulsory education for all abnormal children. Before it had concluded its work the *Storting* ordered all matters relating to the education of such children to be transferred from the Budget Committee to the Committee for Ecclesiastical and Educational Matters, where the Public School budgets were considered.

In 1881 the new act passed, and in 1883 its provisions relating to the deaf and the blind came into force, and since this time the state and the local authorities have paid all the expenses of the education and board of the pupils.

The old names were, however, retained until 1900, when the term "*institut*" was replaced by "*skole*" (school) in the whole sphere of the act of 1881. The term "*dövstumme*" (deaf-mutes) was at the same time exchanged for "*döve*" (deaf). In other words, the "*dövstumme-institut*" of 1899 became in 1900 a "*skole for döve*."

LARS A. HAVSTAD,
Christiania, Norway.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903.
A.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES.

School.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
Alabama School for the Deaf.....	Talladega, Ala.....	1860	Joseph H. Johnson, M. A., Principal.
Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute.....	Little Rock, Ark.....	1868	Frank B. Yates, Superintendent.
California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Berkeley, Alameda Co., Cal.....	1860	Warring Wilkinson, M. A., L. H. D., Prin.
Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind.....	Colorado Springs, El Paso Co., Colo.....	1874	W. K. Argo, M. A., Sup't.
Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Kendall Green, Washington, D. C.....	1857	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
A. Kendall School for the Deaf.....do.....	1857	James Denison, M. A., Principal.
B. Gallaudet College.....do.....	1864	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph. D., LL. D., Pres't.
Connecticut {American School, at Hartford, for the Deaf.....	Hartford, Conn.....	1817	Job Williams, M. A., L. H. D., Principal.
{Mystic Oral School for the Deaf.....	Mystic, Conn.....	1870	Miss Alice H. Damon, B. A., Principal.
Florida School for Blind, Deaf and Dumb.....	St. Augustine, Fla.....	1835	William B. Hare, Superintendent.
Georgia School for the Deaf.....	Cave Spring, Ga.....	1846	Wealey O. Connor, Principal.
Illinois School for the Deaf.....	Jacksonville, Ill.....	1846	Charles P. Gillett, Superintendent.
Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf.....	Indianapolis, Ind.....	1844	Richard Otto Johnson, Supt.
Iowa School for the Deaf.....	Council Bluffs, Iowa.....	1855	Henry W. Rother, Superintendent.
Kansas School for the Deaf.....	Olathe, Johnson Co., Kansas.....	1861	Henry C. Hammond, M. A., Sup't.
Kentucky Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes.....	Danville, Boyle Co., Ky.....	1823	Augustus Rogers, M. A., Sup't.
Louisiana Institute for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Baton Rouge, La.....	1852	John Jastremak, M. D., Supt.
Maine School for the Deaf.....	Portland, Me. (79-91 Spring St.).....	1876	Miss Elizabeth R. Taylor, Principal.
Maryland School for the Deaf.....	Frederick City, Md.....	1868	Chas. W. Ely, M. A., Principal.
Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf.....	Baltimore, Md. (649 W. Saratoga St.).....	1872	{Frederick D. Morrison, M. A., Sup't. {John F. Bledsoe, M. A., P. incipal.
Massachusetts {Clarke School for the Deaf.....	Northampton, Mass.....	1867	Miss Caroline A. Yale, LL. D., Principal.
{New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes.....	Beverly, Mass.....	1879	Miss Nellie H. Swett, Principal.
Michigan School for the Deaf.....	Flint, Mich.....	1864	Francis D. Clarke, M. A., O. E., Supt.
Minnesota School for the Deaf.....	Faribault, Rice Co., Minn.....	1863	James N. Tate, M. A., LL. D., Supt.
Mississippi Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.....	Jackson, Miss.....	1854	J. R. Dobyns, M. A., LL. D., Supt.
Missouri School for the Deaf.....	Fulton, Callaway Co., Mo.....	1851	Noble B. McKee, M. A., Ph. D., Supt.
Montana School for Deaf and Blind.....	Boulder, Montana.....	1894	Thos. H. McAloney, Supt.
Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb.....	Omaha, Neb.....	1869	Renben E. Stewart, M. A., Sup. & Prin.
New Jersey School for the Deaf.....	Trenton, N. J.....	1863	John P. Walker, M. A., Superintendent.
New Mexico Asylum for the Deaf and the Dumb (e).....	Santa Fe, N. M.....	1857	

New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.

- Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes
Western New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes
Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes
Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes
St. Joseph's Institute for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes
St. Joseph's Institute for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes
Albany Home-School for the Oral Instruction of the Deaf
North Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb
North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb
North Carolina Deaf and Dumb Asylum
Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf
Oklahoma Institution for the Deaf and Dumb
Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes
Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb
Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb
Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf
South Carolina Institution for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind
South Dakota School for the Deaf
Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School
Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum
Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum
Utah State School for the Deaf and the Blind
Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind
Washington State School for Deaf and the Blind
West Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind
Wisconsin State School for the Deaf

87 Public Schools not attending Day-Schools.

88 Public Day Schools. (See page 44.)

17 Denominational and Private Schools. (See page 60.)

128 Schools in the United States.

(a) Washington Heights, West 143d Street and Broadway
168th Street, and another at Brooklyn (113 Buffalo Ave.)
Ave., cor. Monument Ave. (c) Closed during the year 1903

(b) This Institution has three branches: one situated at West Chester, another at Fordham (772 East 177th Street), and another at Belmont (772 East 177th Street).
(c) Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.
(f) No information received.

New York, N. Y. (6)

- Home, Ontario Co., N. Y.
Rochester, N. Y. 145 N. St. Paul St.
Malden, Franklin Co., N. Y.
New York, N. Y. 1034 922 Lexington Av.
Buffalo, N. Y. 253 Main St.
Fond du Lac, N. Y.
Pine Hills, Albany, N. Y. 109 N. Pine Av.
Raleigh, N. C.
Morganton, Burke Co., N. C.
Devils Lake, Ramsey Co., North Dak.
Columbia, Ohio.
Guthrie, Oklahoma.
Salem, Oregon.
Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Edgewood Park, Allegheny Co., Pa.
Scranton, Pa.
Philadelphia, Pa. (d)
Cedar Spring, N. C.
Rome Spring, N. C.
Knoxville, Tenn.
Austin, Texas.
Austin, Tex.
Ogden, Utah.
Staunton, Va.
Vancouver, Wash.
Rome, Hampshire Co., W. Va.
Delavan, Walworth Co., Wis.

- 1876 Good Henry Carver, M. A., Prin.
1876 Edward Beverly Nelson, M. A., Principal.
1876 Z. P. Westervelt, J. L. D., Sup't & Prin.
1884 Edward C. Hader, Superintendent.
1887 Albert A. Driver, M. A., Principal.
1891 Sister Mary Anne Burke, Principal.
1892 Miss Ellen V. Clark, Superintendent.
1893 John E. Ray, M. A., Principal.
1894 E. McKay Goodwin, M. A., Sup't.
1894 Dwight F. Bangs, Sup't.
1894 J. W. Jones, M. A., Superintendent.
1894 H. C. Beane, Contractor and Sup't.
1894 Thos. P. Clarke, Superintendent.
1894 A. L. E. Crocker, M. A., J. L. D., Sup't.
1894 William S. Burr, M. A., Ph. D., Prin.
1894 Miss Mary S. Garrett, Principal.
1894 Miss Laura Bell, Richard, Principal.
1894 Newton F. Walker, Superintendent.
1894 Thomas L. Moses, Superintendent.
1894 B. F. McNulty, Superintendent.
1894 Frank M. Driggs, Superintendent.
1894 William A. Bowler, Superintendent.
1894 James Watson, Sup't. Principal.
1894 James T. Rucker, Principal.
1894 E. W. Walker, Superintendent.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 16, 1903.—Continued.

School.	Methods of Instruction.	Industries Taught. (d)										PRESENT NOVEMBER 10, 1903.				PRESENT NUMBER OF INSTRUCTORS.			
		Bl.	Col.	Pr.	Sh.	Art.	Me.	W.	Co.	Dr.	Ca.	St.	Pa.	Pe.	Ma.	Te.	Do.	Ar.	Ind.
Alabama School.	Combined	169	161	94	67	65	52												
Arkansas Institute	Combined	262	221	119	102	46													
California Institution.	Combined	156	137	79	58	107	9												
Colorado School	Combined	73	126	104	59	45	77												
Columbia Inst.	Combined	180	98	66	82	65													
Kendall School.	Combined	184	165	103	62	121	61												
Gallaudet College.	Oral	33	33	24	4	20	24												
Connecticut	Combined	67	55	26	29	54	25												
American School.	Combined	210	174	98	74	86	80												
Mythic School.	Combined	508	385	240	145	363	383												
Florida School (a).	Oral	99	89	40	99														
Georgia School.	Oral	374	328	178	156	163	166												
Illinois School	Oral	373	268	142	116	120	120												
Man. Alph. do.	Oral	247	225	131	116	194	88												
Indiana Institution.	Combined	426	347	195	154	186	133												
Iowa School.	Combined	123	118	69	49	94													
Kansas School.	Combined	108	94	59	35	63													
Kentucky Institution	Combined	116	98	42	37	52	52												
Louisiana Institution	Combined	45	41	26	15	15	15												
Maine School	Combined	161	141	79	69	141	141												
Maryland School	Combined	28	26	13	13	20													
Maryland School for Colored.	Combined	410	384	209	174	265	197												
Mass. {Clark School.	Combined	260	277	146	129	63	194												
N. E. Industrial School.	Combined	149	143	70	73	50	36												
Michigan School.	Combined	392	337	201	146	90	90												
Minnesota School.	Combined	41	81	16	16	91	18												
Montana School.	Combined	48	48	26	10	26	10												
Nebraska Institute.	Combined	13	13	7	7	13	7												

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903—Continued.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS (NOT INCLUDING DAY-SCHOOLS) IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

School.	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	Expenditure Last Fiscal Year.		No. vols. in library.
				For support.	For buildings and grounds.	
Alabama School.....	June 10 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	\$100,000	\$36,570	500
Arkansas Institute.....	Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Oct.....	State.....	250,000	46,064	840
California School*.....	Second Wed. in June to fourth Wed. in August.....	State.....	662,000	59,415	\$10,000	2,578
Colorado Institute*.....	First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	250,000	1,200
Columbia Institution.....	Wed. before last Wed. June to Thura. before last Thura. Sept.	United States and pay pupils.....	700,000	75,983	6,291	4,700
Connecticut { American School.....	Fri. before last Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	Endowment and N. E. States.....	325,000	2,500
Florida School*.....	Twelve weeks.....	State and tuition fees.....
Georgia School.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	State.....	15,000	10,979	4,813	75
Illinois School.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	85,000	28,666	1,200
Indiana Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	708,000	114,765	7,985	14,946
Iowa School.....	Second week in June to fourth week in Sept.....	State.....	498,483	69,163	8,851	3,864
Kansas School.....	June 30 to Oct. 1.....	State.....	169,000	55,000	25,000	1,300
Kentucky Institution.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	250,000	47,790	3,000	2,500
Louisiana In-stitute.....	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	205,000	66,047	66,000	2,370
Maine School.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.....	State.....	300,000	22,500	400
Maryland { Maryland School.....	Middle of June to second Mon. in Sept.....	State.....	40,000	17,500	6,000	600
Mass. { School for Colored*.....	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	255,000	25,397	3,102	3,273
Michigan School.....	June 25 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	30,000	12,000	300
Minnesota School.....	Forty weeks after third Mon. in Sept. to third Mon. in Sept.....	Endowment, N. E. States, and pay pupils.....	150,000	55,574	2,700
Mississippi Institution.....	Third Wed. in June to second Tues. in Sept.....	Voluntary contributions and State.....	15,000	4,300	500
Missouri School.....	Thura. after June 7 to third Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	511,405	95,473	5,227	4,208
Montana School*.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	271,625	53,825	6,316	2,550
Nebraska Institute.....	Third Wed. in June to first Mon. in Oct.....	State.....	50,000	25,387	2,655	1,384
New Jersey School.....	First Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	335,000	72,000	24,010	2,570
	Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	106,000	21,000	6,800	400
	Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.....	State.....	300,000	35,728	1,500
	June 16 to Sept. 10.....	State.....	125,000	42,000	4,000	3,000

New Mexico School		Second Tuesday in June to third Wed. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	182,516	67,018	10,921
Central N. Y. Institution.		Second Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	367,800	56,624	500
Western N. Y. Inst. in Sept.		Fourth Wed. in June to first Mon. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	290,000	73,405	4,800
Northern N. Y. Institution.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	194,000	22,679	1,400
Inst. for Imp. y'd Inst.		Third Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	201,355	68,724	1,000
La. Central Inst. Mary's Inst.		Wed. before last week in June to first Mon. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	212,000	57,511	840
St. Joseph's Institute.		Last Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.	State, counties, and pay pupils.	819,000	121,997	2,000
Abram H. inst. School.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	60,000	20,000	1,060
N. C. Institution (Raleigh).		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	220,000	42,600	1,775
N. C. School (Morganton).		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	70,000	18,218	640
North Dakota School.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	114,160	2,428	2,180
Ohio in the Institute.		July and August	Territory	43,870	14,500	1,150
Oklahoma Institute.		June 1 to Sept. 20	State and tuition fees	1,000,000	144,166	6,960
Oregon School.		Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	State and voluntary contributions	499,355	64,460	1,190
Pa. Western Institute.		June 20 to Sept. 1	State	149,690	29,830	1,900
Penn. Oral School.		None	State and pay pupils.	65,000	19,737	713
Penn. Inst. for Training in Speech.		Third Fri. in June to second Mon. in Sept.	State	90,000	20,000	500
Rhode Island Institute.		Last Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	State and pay pupils	50,000	13,672	1,000
South Carolina Institution.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	200,000	38,000	2,000
South Dakota School.		Third Wed. in June to second Fri. in Sept.	State	426,000	77,000	1,000
Tennessee School.		Third Wed. in June to third Wed. in Sept.	State	180,000	32,266	2,000
Texas Institute for Colored.		First Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	State and pay pupils	200,000	30,000	1,700
Utah School.		Second Wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	State	200,000	2,000	500
Virginia School.		Thurs. after last Wed. in May to last Wed. in Aug.	State	200,000	45,000	600
Washington State School.		Fourth weeks after second Wed. in Sept. to second Wed. in Sept.	State	200,000	6,000	900
West Virginia School.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	120,000	36,942	3,000
Wisconsin School.		Second Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	State	120,000	36,942	3,000

57 Public Schools.
54 Public Day Schools. (See page 44.)
17 Denominational and Private.
— Schools. See page 52.
128 Schools in the United States.

* Contains a department for the blind also, the expenses of which are included in the statement of expenditures.
† For the year 1902
‡ No information received
§ Closed during 1903.

B. PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

School.	Location.	Date of opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
Los Angeles Oral School for the Deaf	Los Angeles, Cal	1890	Miss Mary E. Bennett, Principal
Oakland Oral Public Day-School for the Deaf	Oakland, Cal	1898	Miss Charlotte Louise Morgan, Prin
San Francisco Day School for the Deaf	San Francisco, Cal	1903	Miss Anna B. Holden, Teacher
Aurora Day School for the Deaf	Aurora, Ill	1904	Miss Maggie Nell Proctor, Teacher
Peabody Annual Public Day-School for the Deaf	Peabody, Mass	1903	
Burr Public Day-School for the Deaf	Burr, Ark	1898	
Clark Public Day-School for the Deaf	Clark, Ark	1902	
Darwin Public Day-School for the Deaf	Darwin, N. S. W.	1898	
Dore Public Day-School for the Deaf	Dore, N. S. W.	1898	
Franklin Public Day-School for the Deaf	Franklin, N. S. W.	1898	
Hannan Public Day-School for the Deaf	Hannan, N. S. W.	1898	
Kilpatrick Public Day-School for the Deaf	Kilpatrick, N. S. W.	1898	
Sealey Public Day-School for the Deaf	Sealey, N. S. W.	1898	
Seaward Public Day-School for the Deaf	Seaward, N. S. W.	1898	
William Irwin Public Day-School for the Deaf	William Irwin, N. S. W.	1898	
Yale Public Day-School for the Deaf	Yale, Conn	1898	
Dundee Day-School for the Deaf	Dundee, Scot	1903	Miss Mary McCowan, Supy Principal
Rock Island Day-School for the Deaf	Rock Island, Ill	1901	Miss Elizabeth Stephenson, Teacher
Streator Day-School for the Deaf	Streator, Ill	1901	Miss Sara M. Kinnaird, Teacher
Homer Mar. School for the Deaf	Homer, Me	1894	Miss Lath P. Brewin, Teacher
Bay City Day-School for the Deaf	Bay City, Mich	1899	Miss Sarah Fuller, P. Org.
Calvert Day-School for the Deaf	Calvert, Mich	1901	Miss Martha M. Hill, Teacher
Detroit Day-School for the Deaf	Detroit, Mich	1902	Miss Gertrude Van Alstine, Principal
Grand Rapids Day-School for the Deaf	Grand Rapids, Mich	1894	Miss Margaret M. Shulman, Principal
Marion Day-School for the Deaf	Marion, Mich	1899	Miss Gertrude A. Coleman, Teacher
Menominee Day-School for the Deaf	Menominee, Mich	1903	Miss Olive Newell, Teacher
Michigan Day-School for the Deaf	Michigan, Mich	1900	Miss Leona Banker, Teacher
Stoughton Day-School for the Deaf	Stoughton, Mich	1901	Miss Frances Dewar, Teacher
Calumet School	Calumet, Mich	1901	Miss H. L. M. A. Principal
California Day-School for the Deaf	California, Cal	1898	Miss Rosa Kiefer, Teacher
California Department for the Deaf	California, Cal	1902	Mrs. Katherine M. Bunkley, Teacher
Clinton Public School for the Deaf	Clinton, Ohio	1875	Miss Caroline Peaslee, Principal
Orad School for the Deaf	Orad, Ohio	1896	Miss Virginia E. Barry, Principal
Cleveland School for the Deaf	Cleveland, Ohio	1902	Miss Katharine E. Barry, Supy Prin
Dayton School for the Deaf	Dayton, Ohio	1900	Miss Nellie C. Kerney, Principal
Kyle School for the Deaf	Kyle, Ohio	1900	Miss Harriet A. Mott, Principal

Wisconsin.....	<p>Appleton Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Ashland Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Black River Falls School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Eau Claire Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Fond du Lac Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Green Bay Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>La Crosse Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Marquette Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Milwaukee School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Neillsville Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Oshkosh School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Racine Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Rhinelander Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Sheboygan Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Sparta Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Superior Day-School for the Deaf.....</p> <p>Wausau Day-School for the Deaf.....</p>	<p>Appleton, Wis.....</p> <p>Ashland, Wis.....</p> <p>Black River Falls, Wis.....</p> <p>Eau Claire, Wis. (418 S. Barstow St.).....</p> <p>Fond du Lac, Wis.....</p> <p>Green Bay, Wis.....</p> <p>La Crosse, Wis.....</p> <p>Marquette, Wis.....</p> <p>Milwaukee, Wis. (d).....</p> <p>Neillsville, Wis.....</p> <p>Oshkosh, Wis. (Library building).....</p> <p>Racine, Wis.....</p> <p>Rhinelander, Wis.....</p> <p>Sheboygan, Wis.....</p> <p>Sparta, Wis.....</p> <p>West Superior, Wis.....</p> <p>Wausau, Wis.....</p>	<p>1896</p> <p>1898</p> <p>1897</p> <p>1896</p> <p>1896</p> <p>1897</p> <p>1899</p> <p>1896</p> <p>1896</p> <p>1897</p> <p>1895</p> <p>1900</p> <p>1902</p> <p>1894</p> <p>1898</p> <p>1898</p> <p>1890</p>	<p>Miss Hannah I. Gardner, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Alice V. Robie, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Blanche E. Argyle, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Jennie C. Smith, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Anna Sullivan, Principal.</p> <p>Miss M. Stelle Flatley, Teacher.</p> <p>Miss Hulda Rudolph, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Jessie M. Daniella, Teacher.</p> <p>Miss Frances Wettstein, Principal.</p> <p>Mrs. Elizabeth H. Irish, B. A., Teacher.</p> <p>Miss Carrie H. Archibald, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Katharine Keating, Teacher.</p> <p>Miss Ethel Merchant, Teacher.</p> <p>Miss Margaret P. Maywood, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Charlotte Shermer, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Della C. Page, Principal.</p> <p>Miss Margaret Hurley, Principal.</p>
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54 Public Day-Schools in the United States.

- (a) The first Public Day-School for the Deaf in Chicago was opened in 1875 in a rented building on Van Buren Street. (c) 3435 Henrietta Street.
- (d) Cor. Seventh and Prairie Streets. (e) 1304 Willson Avenue. (f) Wilkins School, Porter Street. (g) Lafayette School, 17th and West Streets.
- (h) Irving School, 12th Street and 9th Ave. (i) Grove Street, near Larkin and City Hall.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

State.	School.	Methods of In- struction.	Industries Taught. (e)	NUMBER OF PUPILS.										PARENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			
				PRESENT NOV. 10, 1903.													
				Total.	Male.	Female.	A.†	B.†	C.†	Total have re- ceived in- struction.	Total.††	Male.††	Female.††	Deaf.	Artistic.	Industrial.	
California	Los Angeles School	Oral	Sewing	19	17	2	17	17	2	36	36	36	0	0	0	0	
	Oakland School	Oral	Bus, Ga., Ho., St.	15	15	0	15	15	0	15	15	15	0	0	0	0	
	San Francisco School	Oral	Bus, W. W.	30	29	1	29	29	0	83	83	83	0	0	0	0	
	Autore School	Oral		4	4	0	4	4	0	4	4	4	0	0	0	0	
	P. D. Armour School	Oral		13	12	1	12	12	0	13	13	13	0	0	0	0	
Illinois	Herr School	Oral		9	9	0	9	9	0	9	9	9	0	0	0	0	
	Clarke School	Oral		19	18	1	18	18	0	19	19	19	0	0	0	0	
	Darwin School	Oral		16	15	1	15	15	0	16	16	16	0	0	0	0	
	Dor School	Oral		10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Freebel School	Oral		17	16	1	16	16	0	17	17	17	0	0	0	0	
	Hammond School	Oral		10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Kosminski School	Oral		17	16	1	16	16	0	17	17	17	0	0	0	0	
	Schley School	Oral		10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Seward School	Oral		16	15	1	15	15	0	16	16	16	0	0	0	0	
	Lyman Trumbull School	Oral		22	21	1	21	21	0	22	22	22	0	0	0	0	
Massachusetts	Yale School	Oral		47	42	5	42	42	0	47	47	47	0	0	0	0	
	Dundas School	Oral	Bus, Se	6	6	0	6	6	0	6	6	6	0	0	0	0	
	Rock Island School	Oral		7	7	0	7	7	0	7	7	7	0	0	0	0	
	Rockford School	Oral		7	7	0	7	7	0	7	7	7	0	0	0	0	
	Streator School	Oral		7	7	0	7	7	0	7	7	7	0	0	0	0	
Michigan	Horace Mann School	Oral	Art, Cl., Cr., St., and country work.	161	152	9	152	152	0	161	161	161	0	0	0	0	
	Bay City School	Oral	Bus, W. C.	8	8	0	8	8	0	8	8	8	0	0	0	0	
	Calumet School	Oral	Bus, Dr., Se., Car., Man.	10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Detroit School	Oral	Bus, Dr., Se., Car., Man., Fr., Se., St.	44	41	3	41	41	0	44	44	44	0	0	0	0	
	Grand Rapids School	Oral	Se., St.	28	25	3	25	25	0	28	28	28	0	0	0	0	
Minnesota	Jackson School	Oral	Drawing.	19	18	1	18	18	0	19	19	19	0	0	0	0	
	Menominee School	Oral	None	10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Minneapolis School	Oral	Dr., St.	10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
Wisconsin	Madison School	Oral	Cooking.	10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	
	Wausau School	Oral		10	9	1	9	9	0	10	10	10	0	0	0	0	

[illegible]

* See page 55.
† A = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method.
‡ A = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Articulate method.
§ Including the principal and the teachers of industries.
(a) For the year 1901.
(b) For the year 1902.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903—Continued.
PUBLIC DAY-SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

School.	Vacation.	How Supported.
California..... { Los Angeles School..... Oakland School..... San Francisco School..... Aurora School..... Armour School..... Bur. School..... Clarke School..... Darwin School..... Dore School..... Froebel School..... Hammond School..... Kozminski School.. Schley School..... Seward School..... Trumbull School... Yale School.....	July and August..... July 1 to August 1..... June, July, August..... July and August.....	City and private subscription. State and County. City. State and Cities.
Illinois..... Dundee School..... Rock Island School..... Rockford School..... Streator School..... Horace Mann School..... Bay City School..... Calumet School..... Detroit School..... Grand Rapids School..... Jackson School..... Menominee School..... Muskegon School..... Saginaw School..... Gallaudet School.....	June..... June 6 to September 14..... Last Friday in June to first Monday in September..... June 1 to September 1..... Last Tuesday in June to first Wednesday in September..... June 17 to September 14..... Ten weeks from June 18..... Twelve weeks from June 21..... Ten weeks from June 23..... Begins June 1..... Begins June 23..... Second Friday in June to first Monday in September.....	State and City. State and City. State and City. State and Cities. City.
Massachusetts..... Michigan..... Missouri.....		

Asbland School	June 18 to first Monday in September	State and Cities.
Black River Falls School	June 8 to first Monday in September	
Eau Claire School	June 4 to first Monday in September	
Fond du Lac School	Twelve weeks from June 24	
Green Bay School	Twelve weeks from June 24	
La Crosse School	Twelve weeks from June 24	
Marquette School	Twelve weeks from June 24	
Milwaukee School	Last Friday in June to first Monday in September	
Neillville School	June 4 to September 1	
Oshkosh School	June 24 to September 1	
Racine School	June 24 to September 1	
Rhinclander School	May 25 to September 1	
Sheboygan School	June 18 to September 1	
Sparta School	June 4 to September 1	
Superior School	June 12 to first Monday in September	
Wausau Oral School	June 18 to first Monday in September	
54 Public Day-Schools in the United States.		

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903—Continued.
C.—DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

School.	Location.	Date of Opening.	Chief Executive Officer.
California.....	Oakland, Cal. (4002 Telegraph Ave.).....	1895	Sister M. Valeria, Principal.
Illinois.....	Chicago, Ill. (409 S. May St.).....	1884	Miss Margaret Cosgrove, Sup. and Prin.
Louisiana.....	Chicago, Ill. (6550 Yale Ave.).....	1883	Miss Cornelia D. Bingham, Principal.
Maryland.....	Chinchuba, St. Tammany Parish, La.....	1890	Rev. B. Maler, Chaplain.
Massachusetts.....	Baltimore, Md. (851 & 853 Hollins St.)...	1877
Michigan.....	Baltimore, Md. (903 McCulloh St.).....	1897	Rev. Mother M. Joseph Hartwell, Prin.
Missouri.....	Jamaica Plain, Mass. (9-11 St. Joseph St)	1899	Thomas Magennis, Superintendent.
New York.....	West Medford, Mass. (93 Woburn St.)..	1888	Miss Eliza L. Clark, Principal & Matron.
Ohio.....	North Detroit, Wayne Co., Mich.....	1873	Rev. William Gielow, B. A., Supt.
Wisconsin.....	St. Louis, Mo. (1849 Cass Ave.).....	1885	Sister M. Adele, Principal.
17 Denominational and Private Schools in the United States.	Longwood Place, South St. Louis, Mo...	1893	Rev. Mother Agatha, Principal
	New York (534 W 187th St.).....	1901	Mrs. A. Reno Margulies, Principal.
	Washington Heights, New York, N.Y.(a)	1901	Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, Principal.
	New York, N.Y. (1 Mt. Morris Park, W.)	1894	John Dutton Wright, M. A., Principal.
	Cincinnati, O. (b).....	1890	Sister Mary of the Sacred Heart, Prin.
	Columbus, O. (825 South Wilson Ave.)..	1902	Miss F. L. Willhoyte, Teacher.
	St. Francis, Wis.....	1876	Rev. M. M. Gerend, President.

(a) 847 St. Nicholas Avenue. (b) Sixth Street, between Sycamore and Broadway. (c) No information received.

School	Methods of Instruction.*	Industries Taught. (b)	Within the Year.	PRESENT NOV. 10, 1902.		Total.		Taught Speech.†		Total hours received in instruction.	US CENSUS BUREAU.					
				Total.	Males.	Females.	A.†	B.†	C.†		Total.	Males.	Females.	Deaf.	Artistic.	
Cal. St. Joseph's School	Combined.	Art, Dr. Em.	40	38	13	25	25	8	8	33	4	4	1	1	1	1
Ill. Epiphany School	Combined.	Cl, Dr, Sc, Wc.	50	51	31	31	31	20	20	51	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ill. The McCowan Oral School	Oral	Dr, Sc, Wc.	47	50	34	34	16	16	16	50	1	1	1	1	1	1
La. Institute of the Holy Rosary	Combined.	Dr, Sc.	34	34	22	22	12	12	12	34	1	1	1	1	1	1
La. Mr. Knapp's Institute (a)	Combined.	Dr, Sc.	34	34	22	22	12	12	12	34	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ma. St. Francis Xavier's School	Combined.	Dr, Sc.	34	34	22	22	12	12	12	34	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mass. Boston School	Oral	Oh, Sc, Sl	40	43	19	19	24	24	24	43	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mass. Sarah Fuller Home	Oral	Oh, Sc, Sl	19	9	4	4	5	5	5	9	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mich. Evangelical Lutheran Institute.	Combined.	Dr, Sc, Wc.	32	34	20	20	14	14	14	34	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mo. Mary Cassell School	Combined.	Dr, Ph, Fr, Ty.	30	30	20	20	10	10	10	30	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mo. St. Joseph's Institute	Combined.	Dr, Ph, Fr, Ty.	34	30	20	20	10	10	10	30	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mo. Reno-Margulies School.	Oral.	Dr, Ph, Fr, Ty.	7	7	7	7	0	0	0	7	1	1	1	1	1	1
N. Y. Washington Heights School...	Oral and Articular.	Art, Cl, Oh, Dr, Man, Pa, Wc.	18	6	4	4	2	2	2	6	1	1	1	1	1	1
N. Y. The Wright Oral School	Oral	Art, Cl, Oh, Dr, Man, Pa, Wc.	18	14	7	7	7	7	7	14	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ohio. Notre Dame School	Combined.	Dr, Sc, Wc.	14	19	9	9	10	10	10	19	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ohio. Miss Wilhoysen's School	Oral	Kindergarten work.	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Wis. St. John's Institute.	Combined.	Car, Pa, Wc.	81	74	45	45	29	29	29	74	1	1	1	1	1	1
17 Denom. and Private Schools.			482	446	202	202	344	344	344	482	19	19	37	3	63	33

* See page 57. A = number taught speech. B = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method. C = number taught wholly or chiefly by the Articular method. †† Including the principal and the teachers of industries. ‡ Including those who teach speech and those who teach by speech, but not the teachers of industries. (a) No information received. (b) See page 58.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1913--Continued.
DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES--Continued.

School.	Vacation.	How Supported.
California.....	Two months	Industry of sisters and tuition fees.
Illinois.....	Last Friday in June to first Monday in September.....	Tuition fees and voluntary subscriptions.
.....	None.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
Louisiana.	June 1 to September 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
Maryland.....
.....	Two months	Voluntary contributions.
Massachusetts..	Second Wednesday in June to third Wednesday in September.....	Corporation funds.
.....	Six weeks ending Wednesday following Labor Day.....	Private subscription.
Michigan.....	Last Wednesday in June to first Wednesday in September.....	Tuition fees and Lutheran Congregations.
Missouri.....	Last week of June to first week of September.....	Tuition fees and voluntary contributions.
.....	June 30 to September 1.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
New York.....	June to September.....	Tuition fees.
.....	June 15 to September 15.....	Tuition fees.
Ohio.....	June 7 to October 1.....	Tuition fees.
.....	15th of June to first week in September.
Wisconsin.....	None.....	Mr. and Mrs. G. W. Seltz.
.....	End of June to first week in September.....	Voluntary contributions and tuition fees.
17 Denominational and Private Schools.		

* No information received.

School	Location	Date of opening	Chief Executive Officer.	NUMBER OF PUPILS.										PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			
				PRESENT NOV. 10, 1908.										PRESENT NUMBERS OF INSTRUCTORS.			
School	Location	Date of opening	Chief Executive Officer.	Within the Inst.	Total	Male	Female	Taught Speech.			Total have received instruction.	Total	Male	Female	Deaf.	Artistic.	Industrial.
								A	B	C							
Manitoba Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Winnipeg, Manitoba.	1888	D. W. McDonald, Principal	39	62	58	29	10	14	1	145	9	5	4	1	8	
New Brunswick School for the Deaf	St. John, N. B.	1901	James Arthur Weaver, Principal	31	31	31	17	16	23	14	38	4	2	2	1	8	
Nova Scotia Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Halifax, N. S.	1887	James Keaton, Principal	118	61	60	41	67	67	57	537	12	6	6	1	6	2
Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Bellefleur, Ontario	1870	Robert Matheson, A. A. V. Director	283	241	240	121	68	1,394	35	14	11	7	2	8
Catholic Inst'n. for Male Deaf Mutes for the Prov. of Quebec	Montreal, P. Q. (686 St. Denis St.)	1848	Rev. St. Casimir, C. S. V. Director	61	69	69	69	69	69	69	860	30	30	1	1	11	
Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institution	Montreal, P. Q. (686 St. Denis St.)	1861	Rev. St. Casimir, C. S. V. Director	46	51	51	51	51	51	51	860	30	30	1	1	11	
MacKay Institution for Protestant Deaf-Mutes and the Blind	Montreal, P. Q. (a)	1870	Mrs. Harriet E. Ashcroft, Superintendent	112	100	100	100	100	100	100	974	43	43	14	21		
				62	46	46	46	46	46	46	1	8	9	6	2	5	8
				74	64	64	20	48	31	17	8	9	6	2	5	8
7 Schools in Canada				886	769	377	392	581	231	38	3,843	131	60	71	16	40	48

* See page 56.
 † Including the principal and the teachers of industries.
 (a) See page 56.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903—Continued.

School	Vacation.	How Supported.	Value of buildings and grounds.	For building and port.	EXPENDITURE LAST FISCAL YEAR.
Mamlook Institution	Second Wed. In June to second Wed. in Sept.	Province.....	\$80,000	\$17,399	\$2,314
New Brunswick School	Last week in June to first week in Sept.	Province and voluntary contributions.....	" "	" "	" "
Nova Scotia-Halifax Institution,	Third week in June to second Wed. in Sept.	Province and voluntary contributions.....	100,000	18,966	488
Ontario Institution	Third wed. in June to first Wed. in Sept.	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions.....	260,266	61,436	3,660
Catholic Inst'n. (Male) " "	July 1st to Sept. 1st.....	Province and voluntary contributions.....	" "	" "	" "
{ Quebec { Catholic Inst'n. (Female)	Third Wed. in June to second Wed. in Sept.	Province, pupils, and vol. contributions.....	60,000	14,969	849
{ Mackay Institution					
# Schools in Canada,					No. volumes in library.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The "Methods of Instruction" named in the preceding Tabular Statement may be defined as follows:

I. *The Manual Method.*—Signs, the manual alphabet, and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. The degree of relative importance given to these three means varies in different schools; but it is a difference only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

II. *The Manual Alphabet Method.*—The manual alphabet and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. Speech and speech-reading are taught to all of the pupils in one of the schools (the Western New York Institution) recorded as following this method.

III. *The Oral Method.*—Speech and speech-reading, together with writing, are made the chief means of instruction, and facility in speech and speech-reading, as well as mental development and written language, is aimed at. There is a difference in different schools in the extent to which the use of natural signs is allowed in the early part of the course, and also in the prominence given to writing as an auxiliary to speech and speech-reading in the course of instruction; but they are differences only in degree, and the end aimed at is the same in all.

IV. *The Auricular Method.*—The hearing of semi-deaf pupils is utilized and developed to the greatest possible extent, and, with or without the aid of artificial appliances, their education is carried on chiefly through the use of speech and hearing, together with writing. The aim of the method is to graduate its pupils as hard-of-hearing speaking people instead of deaf-mutes.

V. *The Combined System.*—Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are regarded as still more important. It is believed that in many cases mental development and the acquisition of language can be best promoted by the Manual or the Manual Alphabet method, and, so far as circumstances permit, such method is chosen for each pupil as seems best adapted for his individual case. Speech and speech-reading are taught where the measure of success seems likely to justify the labor expended, and in most of the schools some of the pupils are taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral method or by the Auricular method.

INDUSTRIES TAUGHT IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The "Industries Taught" in American Schools for the Deaf, mostly designated by abbreviations in the preceding Tabular Statement, are: Art, Baking (Bak.), Barbering (Bar.), Basket-making (Bas.), Blacksmithing (Bl.), Bookbinding (Bo.), Bricklaying (Bk.), Broom-making (Br.), Cabinet-making (Cab.), Calcimining (Cal.), Carpentry (Car.), Chalk-engraving (Ce.), Cementing (Cg.), Chair-making (Ch.), China painting (Cp.), Cooking (Ok.), Clay-modeling (Cl.), Coopers (Co.), Domestic science (Do.), Drawing (Dra.), Dressmaking (Dr.), Electricity (El.), Embroidery (Em.), Engineering (En.), Fancy-work (Fan.), Farming (Fa.), Floriculture (Fl.), Gardening (Ga.), Glazing (Gl.), Harness-making (Ha.), House decoration (Hd.), Half-tone engraving (He.), Housework (Ho.), Horticulture (Hor.), Ironing (Ir.), Knitting (Kn.), Lace-making (La.), Manual training (Man.), Mattress-making (Ma.), Millinery (Mi.), Needlework (Nw.), Painting (Pa.), Paper-hanging (Pap.), Plastering (Pl.), Plate-engraving (Pe.), Photography (Ph.), Printing (Pr.), Pyrography (Py.), Sewing (Se.), Shoemaking (Sh.), Sign-painting (Si.), Sloyd (Sl.), Stone-laying (St.), Tailoring (Ta.), Tin-work (Tin.), Typewriting (Ty.), Venetian Iron Work (Ven.), Weaving (Wea.), Woodcarving (Wc.), Wood-engraving (We.), Wood-turning (Wt.), Woodworking (Ww.), Working in Iron (Wi.), and the use of tools.

AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1903.*

Abbott, Maggie (dressmaking), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.

Acheson, Herbert H., M. A. (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.

Adams, Albert F., M. A. (gymnastics), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

Adams, Ida H. (language and reading), Horace Mann School, Boston.

Adams, Mabel E. (language), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.

Adams, Mary B. (language and number), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.

Adele, Sister M. (Principal), Mater Consilii School, St Louis. Mo.

Adeline, Sister M., St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.

* Corrections of any errors or omissions in this list will be thankfully received by the editor of the *Annals*.

- Adrian, Sister Mary, Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
Agatha Rev. Mother (Principal), St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.
Aglace, Sister (sewing), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Ainee de la Providence, Sister (weaving), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Akina, Anna M., Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
Albertine, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Alcorn, Larry M. W., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
Alda, Sister (art), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Aldrich, Sarah (sloyd), Rhode Island School, Providence, R. I.
Allabough, Brewster R. B. A. (manual), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Allen, Buford L. (printing), Montana School, Boulder, Mont.
Allen, Mrs Emma C. (sewing), Colorado School, Colorado Springs.
Allen, Henrietta E., Mystic Oral School, Mystic, Conn.
Allen, Mary, American School, Hartford, Conn.
Allison, Isaac, M. S. (carpentry), Kendall School, Washington, D. C.
Alspach, Lulu (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, Ohio.
Ames, Elizabeth, St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
Anderson, Bessie, Albany Home School, Albany, N. Y.
Anderson, B. C. (oral), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
Anderson, Eva M., Maine School, Portland, Maine.
Anderson, G. Walfrid (printing), Kansas School, Olathe, Kansas.
Anderson, Mrs. J. Scott (Principal), Washington Heights School, N. Y.
Andrews, Cordelia (Principal, speech department), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
Andrews, Georgia E., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Andrews, Harriet E. (speech), Western New York Institution, Rochester, New York.
Andrews, Helen B. (kindergarten oral), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Angelique Marie, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Apgear, Harry (house painting), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Appleton, D. O. (gardening), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
Applewhite, Alice, Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
Arbaugh, Nellie (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Archer, Mrs Janette V. (oral), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
Archer, Tunis V., M. A. (Supervising Teacher, oral work), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
Archibald, Carrie H., Oshkosh School, Oshkosh, Wis.
Archibald, Orson, B. A. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis.
Argo, W. K. M. A. (Superintendent), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
Argyle, Blanche E., Black River Falls School, Black River Falls, Wis.
Armstrong, Alice, Maine School, Portland, Me.

- Armstrong, Grace E., Maine School, Portland, Me.
 Arnold, Mary O., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Asbury, Lulu, Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
 Ashcroft, Mrs. Harriet E. (Superintendent), Mackay Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
 Asbelby, Katherine E., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Atkinson, Mary E. (dressmaking), American School, Hartford, Conn.
 Atwood, Ralph H. (intermediate), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Aurèle, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
 Austin, Mrs. Ida L. (oral), Louisiana Institute, Baton Rouge, La.
 Austin, Ida M., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Austin, Laurence (shoemaking), St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester.
 Austin, Sister Mary, Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
 Austin, S. Cecil (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
 Autenrieth, May (manual), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
 Anwerter, Fred (baking), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Avery, Elizabeth B. (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Aymar, Mary A., Sarah Fuller Home, West Medford, Mass.
 Ayres, Euelia A., Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.
 Ayres, J. W. (shoemaking), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Babcock, Hugh D., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Bachelder, Grace D. (cookery), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
 Badger, Vina C. (deaf-blind), Perkins Institution for the Blind, South Boston, Mass.
 Baier, Ada (deaf-blind), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
 Bailey, Beatrice (dressmaking), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy.
 Baily, Joseph J. (Principal, industrial department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Baird, Lida (sewing), Maryland School for Colored, Baltimore, Md.
 Baker, Abby T. (grade work, intermediate department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
 Baker, Irene (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Baker, John P. (wood-working), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis.
 Baker, Nettle M., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Baker, S. Pierre, Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Balch, Grace A., Rock Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
 Baldwin, Gertrude P. (cooking), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Balis, James C., B. A., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
 Balis, Mrs. Sylvia C., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
 Ball, Jessie, Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
 Ballantyne, Agnes (dressmaking and millinery), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Ballantyne, Jessie S., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.

- Ballard, Melville, M. S., Kendall School, Washington, D. C.
Ballou, Lillian I., Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.
Barnford, Lillian A. (oral), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
Barnford, Jessie, Muskegon School, Muskegon, Mich.
Bangs, Dwight F. (Superintendent), North Dakota School, Devils Lake, N. D.
Bannister, Inah, Albany School, Albany, N. Y.
Bardes, Henry (shoemaking), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Barker, Frances (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Barnes, Mena A. (oral), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Barnhart, Mrs. M. (cooking), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.
Barrager, Myra L., New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Barrett, Beirne (deaf-blind), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Barrett, John W. (manual), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Barry, Katharine E. (Supervising Principal), Cleveland School, Cleveland, O.
Bartley, Edna (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
Bartley, George W. (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
Barton, Edwin (wood-working), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Bartoo, Dell (sewing), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Bateman, George, Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.
Bateman, Mrs. J. R., Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.
Bancom, Laura B. (sewing), North Carolina School, Morganton, N. C.
Baugh, John J. (carpentry and cabinet-making), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Bauman, Frieda, B. A., Oklahoma Institute, Guthrie, Okla.
Beagle, Mary G., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Beaman, Susan M., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
Beamer, H. C. (Superintendent and Contractor), Oklahoma Institute, Guthrie, Okl.
Beamsley, John (shoemaking), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
Bear, Hattie M., American School, Hartford, Conn.
Beard, Lura A., American School, Hartford, Conn.
Beattie, Grace M. (oral), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
Beattie, Mary B., B. A. (primary art), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Beatty, M. May (advanced department, speech and speech-reading), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Beatty, Thomas (baking), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Beck, Winifred A. (cadet, kindergarten), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
Begg, George (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Behlke, Mrs. Hannah A. D. (sewing), Minnesota School, Faribault.

- Bell, Clara L., American School, Hartford, Conn.
 Bell, Frances K., M. A. (oral), Florida School, St. Augustine, Fla.
 Bell, Laura E., American School, Hartford, Conn.
 Bell, Lucie Lee (oral), Kentucky School, Danville, Ky.
 Bell, Martha C., M. A. (language, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bell, Mary M. (oral), Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
 Bell, Minnie O. (manual), Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
 Bellows, Alice C., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Bending, E. J. (manual training), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
 Benigna, Sister M., Le Conteulx St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
 Bennett, Mary E., Los Angeles School, Los Angeles, Cal.
 Benson, Henry G. (printing), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
 Berg, Albert, M. A. (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Berigaud, Marie (cooking), St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
 Berry, Amelia E. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Berry, George W. (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
 Berry, Louise (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Bertille, Sister Mary (sewing), Boston School, Jamaica Plain, Mass.
 Best, Harry F., M. A. (oral), Washington School, Vancouver, Wash.
 Betts, O. A. (manual), North Carolina School, Morganton, N. C.
 Betzold, Clementine (dressmaking), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bierbower, Fannie, Cleveland School, Cleveland, O.
 Biercamp, William (industrial), West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
 Bierhaus, Henry (manual), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
 Bigelow, Mary F. (elementary science and language), Horace Mann School, Boston, Mass.
 Bilbee, Bertha (sewing), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
 Bilbee, Emma L. (sewing), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
 Billings, Carrie E. (Principal, oral department), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Bingham, Cornelia D. (Principal), McCowen Oral School, Chicago.
 Binkley, Katherine M., Canton School, Canton, O.
 Bjorkquest, Fred. W. (harness-making and shoemaking), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.
 Black, Anna M., Strasburg, Va.
 Blair, Cora L. (grade work, intermediate department), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
 Blakeley, Blanche I., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Blandin, Wallace B. (cabinet-making), Clarke School, Northampton.
 Blankenship, Lloyd (art), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
 Blattner, J. W., M. A. (Principal, educational department), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
 Bledsoe, John F., M. A. (Principal), Maryland School for Colored, Baltimore, Md.

- Bliss, Susan E. (Principal, intermediate department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Block, Elizabeth Lowell, Washington Heights School, New York, N. Y.
- Blount, W. J. (manual, colored school), Kentucky Institution, Danville.
- Bockee, Martha Oakley, American School, Hartford, Conn.
- Bodker, Mrs. Maggie A. (deaf-blind), Mississippi Institution, Jackson.
- Boggs, Irene (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Boland, John A., B. A. (manual), West Virginia School, Romney.
- Bolyn, Margaret I. (oral), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Bond, H. M. (printing), Utah School, Ogden, Utah.
- Bones, M. J. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Bonner Philip (horticulture), New York Institution, Washington Heights, N. Y.
- Bork, Emma (mathematics), Cincinnati Oral School, Cincinnati, O.
- Boucher, Matilda, Ephpheta School, Chicago, Ill.
- Boulware, Cordia (oral), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
- Bowden, Gertrude (Normal Student), Gallaudet College, Washington.
- Bowden, Mrs. Persis S., New England Industrial School, Beverly.
- Bowles, Wm. A. (Superintendent), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
- Boyd, Iva M., Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
- Boylan, M. O., B. S., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Braby, Minnie H., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Bragg, Serena (colored department), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
- Braunon, H. L. (printing), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edge-wood Park, Pa.
- Branum, W. O., Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
- Bray, Ivy (plain sewing), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Breckinridge, Mary S. (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Brehm, F. Elizabeth (loyd), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
- Briel, William A. (tailoring), Le Contreux St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Bright, Endora (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
- Bristol, E. Morris (printing), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Brock, Frances I., American School, Hartford, Conn.
- Brooks, George A., B. S. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Brooks, Mrs. George A., B. A. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Brown, Mrs. E. A. (sewing and dressmaking), Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.
- Brown, Edith E., Streator School, Streator, Ill.
- Brown, Gertrude (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
- Brown, Mary B. C. (Principal), Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton.
- Brown, Philip H., B. A. (manual department and carpentry), Montana School, Boulder, Mont.
- Brown, Thomas L., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Brammitt, Edith, Oklahoma Institute, Guthrie, Okla.

- Brauning, Olivia (intermediate), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Brunckow, Marie (sewing), Maine School, Portland, Me.
 Bryant, Arthur D., B. Ph. (drawing), Gallaudet College, Washington.
 Bryant, Belle (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
 Bryant, Lelia (sewing), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
 Bryarly, Katharine Lee (oral), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
 Brydson, Jno. C. (painting), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
 Buchanan, Mrs. C. P. (sewing), North Dakota School, Devils Lake.
 Buchanan, Arthur P., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Buckingham, Abigail, Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Buckingham, Eva E. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Buell, Edith M., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.
 Buelow, F. C. (tailoring), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Bulger, Thomas N. (field music), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Bull, Mary (intellectual department and fancy work), Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
 Bumgardner, J. B., B. A. (art), Minnesota School, Fairbault, Minn.
 Bumgardner, Nellie, Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
 Bunting, Virginia H., New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
 Burbank, Edith, B. A., Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.
 Burchard, Prudence E. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Burdick, Edward H. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Burke, Julia A. (art), St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
 Burke, Mary (sewing), St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
 Burke, Sister Mary Anne (Principal), Le Conte's St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
 Burnett, Mayme, Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
 Burns, John (tailoring), St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester, N. Y.
 Burns, John T. (printing), Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
 Burt, William N., M. A., Ph. D. (Principal), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
 Burton, Grace C., B. A., Cleveland School, Cleveland, O.
 Bush, John P., Utah School, Ogden, Utah.
 Butler, A. Evelyn (intermediate), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Byrne, Agnes S., St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
 Byrnes, W. J. (gardening), St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester, N. Y.
 Byrns, Margaret (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Cabaniss, Bettie (cooking), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
 Cadieux, Rev. J. M., C. S. V. (Director), Male Catholic Institution, Mile End, near Montreal, P. Q., Canada.

- Calahan, Harriet L., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
- Caldwell, William A., M. A. (Principal's Assistant), California Institution, Berkeley, Cal.
- Caldwell, W. A. (Manager, colored department), Florida School, St. Augustine, Fla.
- Caldwell, Mrs. W. A. (colored department), Florida School, St. Augustine, Fla.
- Calhoon, Nannie (kindergarten), Mississippi Institution, Jackson.
- Cameron, Mary B., Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.
- Camp, Anna R., 5709 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
- Campbell, E. C. (manual), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
- Campbell, W. J., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario, Canada.
- Cannon, Daisy M., McCowen Oral School, Chicago, Ill.
- Capelli, Anthony (printing), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
- Carney, Julia (physical culture), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
- Carpenter, Lula E., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Carrell, Owen G., B. A. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
- Carroll, Mary H. (oral), Church Street, Kingsbridge, New York, N. Y.
- Carskadon, Edith (physical culture), West Virginia School, Romney.
- Carter, Bettie (dressmaking), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
- Carter, Clyde (manual), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
- Carter, Florence (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Pa.
- Carter, F. F., Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.
- Carter, W. Hickman, B. A. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville.
- Cartwright, J. H. (shoemaking and harnessmaking), Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
- Chamberlayne, H. M., Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
- Chambers, William H., North Carolina School, Raleigh, N. C.
- Chapin, Alma L., Wright Oral School, New York, N. Y.
- Chapin, Edward L., B. A. (manual), West Virginia School, Romney.
- Charles, Clarence W., B. A. (printing), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Chickering, Rev. John W., M. A. (Emeritus), natural science and pedagogy, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
- Chidester, J. T. (oral), West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
- Chidester, S. W. (manual), West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
- Child, Emma Reed, Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.
- Childs, Esmond A. (printing and sloyd), Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.
- Christian, Caroline E. (literature), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
- Christian, Daisy (oral), North Carolina Institution, Raleigh, N. C.
- Christman, Mrs. Stella Y. (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Christmas, Jeannette J. (Teacher in charge, primary department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Christy, Nettie, Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.

- Chrysante, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
 Church, Mary, Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.
 Clark, Abel S., M. A., American School, Hartford, Conn.
 Clark, A. M. (drawing and physical culture), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Clark, Adda E. (sewing and dressmaking), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
 Clark, Eliza L. (Principal), Sarah Fuller Home, West Medford, Mass.
 Clark, Jennie (dressmaking), Pennsylvania Institution, Mount Airy, Pa.
 Clark, Mabel I., Rhode Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
 Clark, Marion G., Northern New York Institution, Malone, N. Y.
 Clark, May (drawing, woodcarving, and physical culture), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Clarke, Edward P., M. A. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Clarke, Francis D., M. A., C. E. (Superintendent), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
 Clarke, Thomas P. (Superintendent), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.
 Clarke, Mrs. Lottie K. (oral), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.
 Clause, Ernest (shoemaking), Washington State School, Vancouver.
 Clearwater, Edward (carpentry and cabinet-making), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
 Cleary, Edward P., B. A. (manual), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Clifford, W. H. (printing), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Cloak, Ellen E. (Superintendent), St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester, N. Y.
 Cloud, James H., M. A. (Principal), Gallaudet School, St. Louis, Mo.
 Cobb, Jennie L., B. S. (manual), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood Park, Pa.
 Coburn, Alice T. (oral), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
 Cochrane, W. A., M. A. (manual), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
 Coker, Charles P. (manual), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
 Colclough, Carrie (negro department), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.
 Cole, Pearl (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
 Coleman, D. R., M. A. (Head Teacher), Ontario Institution, Belleville.
 Coleman, Gertrude A. (Principal), Jackson School, Jackson, Mich.
 Coleman, Mrs. G. D. (art), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring.
 Coleman, Thomas H., B. A. (manual), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
 Collings, J. W. (carpentry), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
 Collins, Mrs. Ellen (dressmaking), St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham.
 Collins, William T. (carpentry, cabinet-making, painting, etc.), Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
 Come de la Providence, Sister (sewing), Female Institution, Montreal.
 Comp, Charles E. (manual department and printing), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.

Comstock, Minerva E., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.

Coudon, Anna, Grand Rapids School, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Congar, Remington (printing), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.

Congdon, Henry (carpentry), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.

Conley, Helen S. (deaf-blind), Perkins Institution for the Blind, South Boston, Mass.

Conner, Geo. W. (chair-caning), Maryland School for Colored, Baltimore, Md.

Conner, Rachel A., Pennsylvania Oral School, Scranton, Pa.

Connery, Julia, Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.

Connor, Mrs. E. F. (manual), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.

Connor, Wesley O. (Principal), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.

Connor, Wesley O., Jr., M. A. (arithmetic and book-keeping), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Conrad, W., Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.

Constantine, Joliette E. (cadet, kindergarten), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.

Cook, Joseph B. (manual department and printing), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg, Man.

Cook, Trevanion G. (Physical Director), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.

Cooke, Harry (house painting), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.

Cooke, Lydia M., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.

Cookus, M. A. (manual), West Virginia School; Romney, W. Va.

Cool, Mamie (manual), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.

Cooper, H. C. (house decoration), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.

Cooper, Lucile (oral), Kentucky School, Danville, Ky.

Cooper, Mildred H. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Coplin, Ethel A. (gymnastics), California Institution, Berkeley, Cal.

Core, Lucretia (sewing), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.

Corless, Michael (baking), St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester, N. Y.

Cornay, Nellie (manual), Louisiana Institute, Baton Rouge, La.

Corwin, Mary (art), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.

Corwin, W. R. (manual), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.

Cory, Annetta, Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.

Cosgrove, Margaret (Principal and Superintendent), Ephpheta School, Chicago, Ill.

Coughlin, Ethel, Le Couteur St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.

Coulter, James (carpentry), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg, Man.

Crane, John E., M. A., American School, Hartford, Conn.

Cranwill, Thomas J. (baking), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

Craven, Thomas M. (shoemaking), Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.

Crawford, Ella E. J., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.

TABULAR STATEMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, NOVEMBER 10, 1909—Continued.
C.—DENOMINATIONAL AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

School	Location	Date of opening	Chief Executive Officer
California	St. Joseph's School for the Deaf	1896	Sister M. Valeria, Principal
Ill.	Epiphany School for the Deaf	1894	Miss Margaret O'Grady, Sup. and Prin.
Iowa	The McGovern Oral School for Young Deaf Children	1893	Miss Cornelia D. Bingham, Principal
Louisiana	Deaf-Mute Institute of the Holy Rosary	1890	Rev. B. Maier, Chaplain
Maryland	St. Francis Xavier's School for the Deaf	1897	Rev. Mother M. Joseph Hartwell, Prin.
Massachusetts	Beacon School for the Deaf	1899	Thomas Magennis, Superintendent
Michigan	The Sarah Fuller Home for Little Children who Cannot Hear	1898	Miss Ellen A. Clark, Principal & Matron
Minnesota	Evangelical Lutheran Deaf-Mute Institute	1893	Rev. William Glover, E. A., Sup.
Missouri	St. Joseph's Institute for the Deaf	1885	Sister M. Adèle, Principal
New York	St. Joseph's Institute for Children with Defective Hearing	1891	Rev. Mother Agatha, Principal
Ohio	Washington Heights School for Children with Defective Hearing	1901	Sister A. Rene Margulien, Principal
Wisconsin	The Wright Oral School	1901	Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, Principal
17 Denominational and Private Schools in the United States.	St. John's Day-School for the Deaf	1894	John Dalton Wright, M. A., Principal
	St. John's Day-School for the Deaf	1890	Sister Mary of the Sacred Heart, Prin.
	St. John's Day-School for the Deaf	1900	Miss F. L. Willhoysie, Teacher
	St. John's Day-School for the Deaf	1878	Rev. M. M. Gernand, President

(a) 547 St. Nicholas Avenue.

(b) Sixth Street, between Syracuse and Broadway.

(c) No information received.

- DePazzi, Sister M., Le Conteulx St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
Dean, Dossia, Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
Dedman, Lella M. (oral), Louisiana Institute, Baton Rouge, La.
Deem, Charles S. (manual and printing), Mississippi Institution,
Jackson, Miss.
Dehner, Carrie (writing), Oral School, Cincinnati, O.
Dellicker, H. Maude, New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
Denise, Sister M., St. Joseph's Institute, South St. Louis, Mo.
Denison, Elizabeth (mannal), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
Denison, James, M. A. (Principal), Kendall School, Washington, D. C.
Dent, Alice, Mackay Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Denys, Paul, Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
Deschamps, Rev. Father A. E. (Chaplain), Female Institution, Mon-
treal, P. Q.
Desmaries, Moses (cabinet-making), Minnesota School, Faribault.
Dewar, Frances, Saginaw School, Saginaw, Mich.
Dickerson, Mary Gertrude primary, Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Diehl, Jennie G. (dressmaking), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy.
Diemer, Michel (gardening), Western New York Institution, Roch-
ester, N. Y.
Dummick, Ella J. (oral), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edgewood
Park, Pa.
Divine, Florence A. (manual), Oregon School, Salem, Ore.
Divine, Louis A., B. S. (manual), Nebraska Institute, Omaha, Neb.
Divine, Mary L. (First Assistant), Maine School, Portland, Me.
Dixon, Iva, Tennessee School, Knoxville, Tenn.
Doane, Letitia L., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
Dobson, Josie Helen (gymnastics), Gallaudet College, Washington.
Dobyns, Ashbel W., M. A., (manual), Washington State School, Van-
couver, Wash.
Dobyns, J. R., M. A., LL. D. (Superintendent), Mississippi Institu-
tion, Jackson, Miss.
Dold, J. J., Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
Domitien, Sister (knitting), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Donald, Dora (Superintendent), South Dakota School, Sioux Falls.
Donald, Ida M. (advanced), South Dakota School, Sioux Falls, S. D.
Doneghy, Susan (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
Donohoe, M. Lizzie, Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
Dontheus, Sister M. (Assistant Principal), Le Conteulx St. Mary's
Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
Doub, Florence W. (drawing), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
Dowd, Mollie, Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
Downing, A. U. (manual), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edge-
wood Park, Pa.
Downing, Lulu M. (sewing), Western Pennsylvania Institution, Edge-
wood Park, Pa.

- Dowrie, John (carpentry), Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario.
- Draper, Amos G., M. A. (mathematics and Latin), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
- Draper, Estella M. (academic department and manual training), Maine School, Portland, Me.
- Driggs, Frank M. (Superintendent), Utah School, Ogden, Utah.
- Driscoll, Timothy F., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
- Driscoll, Mrs. T. F., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York.
- Drumm, Margaret (housekeeping), St. Joseph's Institute, Brooklyn.
- Drusedum, William F. (baking), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy.
- Dudley, Jessie (oral), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
- Duff, E. H. (industrial), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
- Dula, Flora Lee (oral), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
- Dumon, Lucie, Detroit School, Detroit, Mich.
- Duncan, William (painting and glazing), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Dunham, Mrs. Pearl H. (Principal), Oklahoma Institute, Guthrie, Okla.
- Dunn, Ethel A. (drawing), Rhode Island Institute, Providence, R. I.
- Dustan, Gertrude L. (primary), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy.
- Dutch, Mary A., California Institution, Berkeley, Cal.
- Dutton, Jesse H. (painting), Western New York Institution, Rochester, N. Y.
- Dwyer, B. E., Le Couteux St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Dwyer, Loretta, St. Joseph's Institute, West Chester, N. Y.
- Dyer, Lucinda (oral), Missouri School, Fulton, Mo.
- Eakin, Mrs. Laura (oral), Arkansas Institute, Little Rock, Ark.
- Earle, Mrs. Carrie W., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Earle, James (baking), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Eaton, Mary (sloyd), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Eddy, Frances N., Utah School, Ogden, Utah.
- Eddy, Jonathan H., Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
- Eddy, L., M. A. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Eddy, Mabel G. (oral), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Eden, Lavinia J. (manual), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
- Edgar, Bessie M. (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
- Eickhoff, Arlington J., B. A., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Eldridge, Charles H., Nebraska School, Omaha, Neb.
- Ellis, Sallie G. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
- Elwood, Caroline F., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
- Ely, Charles E., M. A., Ph. D. (natural science), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
- Ely, Charles W., M. A. (Principal), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
- Ely, Grace D. (oral), Maryland School, Frederick, Md.
- Emerentia, Sister M. (printing), Le Couteux St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.

- Emerson, Grace, Albany Home School, Albany, N. Y.
Engleman, Josephine H. (oral), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.
Erd, Robert L., B. A. (physical culture), Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Ervin, Annie McD. (oral), Georgia School, Cave Spring, Ga.
Erwin, Hugh B. (colored department), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
Erwin, Ollie (sewing, cooking, etc., colored department), Mississippi Institution, Jackson, Miss.
Euphemus, Sister M. (art), Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo.
Euritt, G. D. (Head Teacher), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
Euritt, Mrs. G. D. (articulation), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.
Eusebe de Verceil, Sister (cooking), Female Institution, Montreal.
Eusebius, Sister M. (sewing and dressmaking), Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution, Buffalo, N. Y.
Evaristo, Sister (sewing), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Ewing, Mrs. Laura W. (language), Oral School, Cincinnati, O.

Fagan, Julia, St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
Fairbank, Marion E. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.
Fanning, M., Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.
Farnum, Emma Dee, Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Farratt, Mary I., Central New York Institution, Rome, N. Y.
Fay, Allan Bradshaw, M. A. (Latin), Gallaudet College, Washington.
Fay, Edward Allen, M. A., Ph. D. (Vice-President; languages), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
Fay, Elizabeth, American School, Hartford, Conn.
Fay, Gilbert O., M. A., Ph. D., American School, Hartford, Conn.
Fay, Helen (Normal Student), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
Fearon, James, Principal, Halifax Institution, Halifax, N. S.
Fealey, Carolyn M. (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Featherstone, Margaret, St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.
Félicienne, Sister (oral), Female Institution, Montreal, P. Q.
Fenner, Sara H., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
Ferguson, Elizabeth (manual), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Ferguson, Fannie F. (oral), Iowa School, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Ferguson, Mrs. Lucy W. (manual), West Virginia School, Romney.
Fessenbeck, Caroline, Cincinnati Public School, Cincinnati, O.
Field, Alice M. (arithmetic), Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
Finch, Marion E. (intermediate), South Dakota School, Sioux Falls.
Firth, Emma M., Chicago Schools, Chicago, Ill.
Fischer, Bertha (drawing), Oral School, Cincinnati, O.
Fish, Kate H. (articulation), Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.
Fiater, George E., B. A. (printing), Maine School, Portland, Me.
Fitzgerald, Edith, B. A. (manual), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
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Schoolfield, A. T. (oral), Montana School, Boulder, Mont.

Schoolfield, George T. (manual), Kentucky Institution, Danville, Ky.

Schory, Albert H., B. A. (intermediate), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

Schrock, Nellie J. (kindergarten), Indiana Institution, Indianapolis.

Schuit, Baren van der (horticulture), Utah School, Ogden, Utah.

Schumacher, Margaret (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

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Schwirz, John (manual), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

Schwirz, Mrs. Sigrid (cooking), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

Scott, Wirt A., M. A. (manual), Texas School, Austin, Texas.

Scott, Mrs. Wirt A. (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.

Seaton, Charles D., B. A. (manual), West Virginia School, Romney.

Selby, Mary A. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

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Sellers, Ella (dressmaking), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.

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Sharp, B. Howard, New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.

Shaw, Mary B., Institution for Improved Instruction, New York, N. Y.

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Shelley, Katharine C., St. Joseph's Institute, Fordham, N. Y.

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Sheridan, Mary J., B. A. (oral), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

- Sheridan, Thomas, B. A. (manual), Minnesota School, Faribault.
Sherman, Isaac (tailoring), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Sherman, Marguerite (sewing and cooking), American School, Hartford, Conn.
Shermer, Charlotte, Sparta School, Sparta, Wis.
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Shortle, Mabel, Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
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Sloan, Lida (oral), West Virginia School, Romney, W. Va.
Sloan, Louise (deaf blind), Colorado School, Colorado Springs, Colo.
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Smith, Florence G. S. (articulation), New York Institution, Washington Heights, New York, N. Y.
Smith, James L., M. A. (manual), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Smith, Jennie C. (Principal), Eau Claire School, Eau Claire, Wis.
Smith, Mary E. (manual, advanced department), Pennsylvania Institution, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Snader, Anna (primary), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
Snider, Amy E. (oral), Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.
Snyder, Harry, (manual), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.
Sorenson, Sara, Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.
Sorenson, Lillian M. (art), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.
Sowell, James W., M. A. (mathematics), Nebraska Institute, Omaha.
Spaight, Augusta (articulation), Manitoba Institution, Winnipeg.
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Spencer, Mary A., Michigan School, Flint, Mich.
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Steelman, Anna B. (primary oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
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Steinke, Elsie M. (oral), Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wis.

- Stephenson, Elizabeth, Dundee School, Dundee, Ill.
 Stevens, Mattie (sewing), Alabama School, Talladega, Ala.
 Stevenson, Estelle, Cleveland School, Cleveland, Ohio.
 Stevenson, Jane A., Milwaukee School, Milwaukee, Wis.
 Stevenson, Margaret J., Kansas School, Olathe, Kans.
 Stevenson, Miriam M. (millinery and embroidery), New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
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 Steward, James M. (intermediate oral), Ohio Institution, Columbus, O.
 Stewart, George F., Ontario Institution, Belleville, Ontario, Canada.
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Thomas, Olivia (oral), Texas School, Austin, Texas.

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Trout, Hattie (cooking), Virginia School, Staunton, Va.

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Walker, Newton F. (Superintendent), South Carolina Institution, Cedar Spring, S. C.
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 Wood, Catherine (manual), Illinois School, Jacksonville, Ill.

- Wood, Mary B., New Jersey School, Trenton, N. J.
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NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

FERRERI, G. *Le Istituzione Americane per l'educazione dei sordomuti.* [*American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf.*] Palermo: Alberto Reber. 1903. 8vo., pp. 380.

It is interesting to know what impression American schools for the deaf make upon an intelligent and open minded foreigner who visits them for the special purpose of investigating their merits and their defects.

Mr. Ferreri notes with admiration the boundless liberty of initiative and the generosity of private individuals in founding schools for the deaf, and thus proving the need for them; and that, when once the need has thus been proved, the governments of our various States are generous in providing for their continued support. He says that any nation of Europe (and he has traveled widely) may envy our schools, with their fine situations, their extensive grounds, and their equipment of museums, libraries, and general school supplies, such as maps, models, and mechanical apparatus.

Mr. Ferreri's investigation of our methods of instruction has not altered his opinion that the oral method is the best. He has not found that the all important object of intellectual development can be any better accomplished by the combined system than by the oral method, though he concedes the superiority of the manual alphabet as a means of communication in the higher instruction of the deaf. The fact that American schools seem to accomplish greater results than European schools is due, he says, to favorable conditions and the greater length of the course of instruction, which we are willing to give to our pupils "because the American artisan rises in his position in proportion to the culture of his mind," as is proved by the well-known fact that the most abject and tiresome work is done by negroes and illiterate immigrants.

He admires our manual-training schools, and notes that we attach great importance to instruction in cooking.

The chapter on "infant asylums" pays a compliment to the ability of our kindergarten teachers.

It is interesting to see what impression our religious ser-

vices made upon Mr. Ferreri. He says that in all the schools except those of the Catholics the teachers always take pains to explain to visitors that the services are non-sectarian. He speaks of two such services that he attended at combined-system schools: "I was present one morning at the general assembly of the pupils in the chapel. The principal invited me to take a seat on the platform. On a blackboard was written the text to be explained; its import was that God sees us, always and everywhere. The talk was given by signs and the manual alphabet. If I must tell the truth, I was not fully satisfied with that service. Perhaps my presence disturbed its progress somewhat. The grown pupils of the higher classes were very attentive; but the little ones, either because they were more distracted than usual, or because they really understood but little of the complicated and abstract sign-language used, certainly did not get any profound instruction.

"Another time, having been kindly invited, I was present at an ethical-religious lecture, given by my eminent colleague and friend, Dr. Gallaudet, to the students of the National College at Washington, gathered together with the pupils of the Kendall School, on a Sunday afternoon. The theme was 'The Strenuous Life,' the title of a book by President Roosevelt. It was illustrated by the example of the life of the apostle Paul of Tarsus. Signs and the manual alphabet were the means of communication. I noticed here also that the college students, who could follow the elevated discourse, received real intellectual pleasure and moral instruction, but the little children gave such signs of weariness that it was easy to see that the instruction did not make any impression upon their minds."

Mr. Ferreri admits that these non-sectarian ethical talks may indeed influence the development of individuality and the formation of character; but he maintains that a body of moral precepts does not constitute religion, and so concludes that no real religious instruction is given to the deaf-mutes of the United States in the sense that the Latin peoples understand it.

"But an exception may be made of those few institutions

in which parents are asked upon the admission blank, "What is the religion in which you wish your child to be taught?" And here, by one of the frequent human contradictions, I have met Protestant principals and teachers who were preparing Catholic pupils for the sacraments with the full approval of a minister of the faith.

"Moreover there is everywhere great reciprocal toleration; and this is well. But if we remember that religion is based for children in general and for deaf-mutes in particular primarily upon example, and that its efficacy depends upon their being able to begin to imitate while still very young, one can easily understand how, generally speaking, the deaf-mutes of the United States are rather indifferent in religious matters, and so lack one of the greatest consolations in life,—the consolations of which the genius of Christianity is a perennial spring."

Speaking of physical training, Mr. Ferreri approves the "fundamental principle of free exercise" which he finds among us. "So far as I have observed, fathers and mothers never poison their children's recreation hours, as ours do, by compelling them to sit still and by frightening them with the fear of falling and breaking their necks. Hence the bold and free manner of American children,—a manner perhaps a little rough at times, but peculiar to that individual liberty that saves an American youth from timidity and from many conventional lies. Youthful energies, freely developed at an early age, are then disciplined in school. There are many well equipped gymnasiums, but the most common exercise is that of games in the open air. The children run out of doors between hours of lessons, even during short recesses of only ten minutes. Recreation in the open air is a recognized necessity in all American schools, even in the coldest places and in the severest weather. The heating systems, which make the houses and schools comfortable, render a frequent change of air indispensable; and the children, by going out of doors often, not only avoid becoming slothful, but acquire great agility, a quality which is lacking in children accustomed to remain seated hour after hour, as in our schoolrooms."

Speaking of the education of the deaf and its propaganda,

Mr. Ferreri criticises public exhibitions, because they tend merely to mystify the spectators. For example, he tells of an exhibition that he attended of the pupils of an oral school. He says: "I moved about in the audience, and every time that a boy or girl was presented to reply to the usual questions, I asked some one near me, 'What did he say?' or, 'Did you understand?' and it always happened that I asked some one who had not understood."

Mr. Ferreri commends the love of reading that he found in the pupils of our schools, and attributes the habit to the opportunity afforded by the length of school life in America, and to the abundance of suitable books.

In his last chapter he speaks of giving Helen Keller lessons in Italian, and of the wonderful range of her knowledge.

Pages 257 to 380 contain eleven appendices, consisting of articles previously published by Mr. Ferreri in various magazines, some of them in the *Annals*. One of them is entitled "L'America Vittoriosa" (Victorious America). It is an address given by Mr. Ferreri before the Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association, at Minneapolis, July 11, 1902. One or two extracts will indicate his admiration for America. "In Europe we speak and write much—perhaps too much—and we have the best ideas and the finest theories on the general education of the child, and particularly of the deaf, as well as of the feeble-minded; but we have not the means to put these ideas and theories into practice. Here I find the contrary. The Americans put into practice our ideas, and they make every effort to do it well. In Europe we have a large and rich special literature on the education of defective children, but then I have never seen put into practice, so largely and liberally, the suggestions of science in regard to the care and education of these children as is done in every State of this American Union. And here I find also the best schools for the deaf.

"Therefore, to the inquiry of my European colleagues, What are the Americans doing for the education of the deaf? I can answer without any hesitation: They are doing the best which it is possible to do in the present condition of

science; and in a not far distant future they will be our guide in the progressive development of our special line of education."

ALLAN BRADSHAW FAY.

Assistant Professor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

HOWE, MAUD, and HALL, FLORENCE HOWE. *Laura Bridgman: Dr. Howe's Famous Pupil and What He Taught Her With Illustrations from Drawings by John Elliott.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1903. 12mo., pp. 394.

Although the education of Laura Bridgman has been ably treated by Dr. Howe in the Reports of the Perkins Institution, and in the "Life" by Mrs. Mary Swift Lamson, this book is by no means a vain repetition. The pedagogic aspects of the case are presented from a broader base of observation than that of Mrs. Lamson, and with illustrations which propriety forbade Dr. Howe to use in official documents. The book is also written in a more pleasing style and with a finer sense of literary and other values. Not its least charm and importance lie in the view it gives of Laura's—creator, we had almost said—her teacher and friend, Samuel G. Howe. Not that his figure is allowed to crowd Laura's into the background, but it was essential, in accounting for Laura Bridgman, to give us a clear conception of that personality which acted so powerfully on her and which virtually created the environment in which her nature was developed.

Dr. Howe was, indeed, one of the notable men of his generation. Born (1800) and bred in Boston, the home of the reforming philanthropist, he was one himself, and of the most pronounced type. In his youth he threw himself ardently into the cause of oppressed nationalities, bearing the extremes of privation and the daily hazard of life through the Greek war of independence, and incurring by his services on behalf of the Poles an imprisonment which, but for chance, might have ended only with his life. For half a century more he was in the forefront of every reform movement of which Boston was the centre—some of them romantic, some, perhaps, rather visionary. One who knows something of reformers, and especially of Boston reformers, might, from such an account,

Hanover, New Hampshire. The change, however, from the institution life, full of physical activity and enlivened by constant communication with other minds, was too great. In the family circle she was treated with affection and comfortably cared for, but her mind no longer found exercise and she pined away, sinking almost to the point of death. Dr. Howe sent for her, and it was then decided that while she lived her home should be in the Institution. Her life here was happy and useful. She spent some time daily in reading, and as among her favorite books, besides the Bible, are mentioned *Evangeline* and the *Imitation of Christ*, her comprehension and taste in reading must have been pretty good.

She had her share in household duties, and it is worth noting that even in a house kept with exquisite neatness, the rooms she cared for were found the most immaculate, while in the sewing-room her standard of work was more exacting than that of the seeing teacher. She occupied herself a good deal in fancy knitting, in which she excelled. Her cheerful, busy, blameless—in a high sense, although indirectly, useful life, ended May 24, 1889. Dr. Howe died thirteen years before her, but she was surrounded by kind friends to the last.

In considering her development, the temptation is irresistible to compare it, at every step, with that of Helen Keller, the only other blind-deaf person whose education has been treated with equal fulness. It is true that there are pitfalls along this path, but with Plutarch's example for warrant we may believe that it also affords occasion for instructive reflection.

Laura was of sound, unmixed English Puritan yeoman stock transplanted into New England, where, moulded by the Shorter Catechism, the town meeting, and the necessity of farming on the glacial drift, it grew into a race distinguished by strength of body, mind, and will. Helen was distinctly of gentle blood, uniting in her ancestry a line of Swiss scholars with some of the best strains of those two illustrious American commonwealths, Massachusetts and Virginia. Yet the difference in organization was not, as one might have expected, in native grace and refinement—rather in vigor of body and force of will. Both were graceful, sensitive, affectionate, and intelligent to a marked degree.

But it is characteristic that Laura in recalling her unilluminated childish days speaks of herself as sitting in her little chair by the fireside, waiting patiently for the brief touch of endearment which her busy mother could give her in passing. Helen, at the corresponding period, was scrambling about the place, domineering over her little maid and playmate, rioting among the wealth of fragrant roses, seeking out her parents to wreak her affection in passionate caresses or to enjoy a hearty frolic.

Throughout their education we see this difference, Laura's quickness—her intellectual velocity, so to speak—being perhaps equal to Helen's, but the difference in the mental mass of the two girls accounting for the vast excess of momentum in the case of the more favored one.

Both lost sight and hearing at nearly the same age—Laura at 24, Helen at 20 months. But the latter was an unusually sturdy, precocious child, speaking her first word at six months, walking at one year; while Laura was a puny, rickety infant, enjoying only a few months of tolerable health before the loss of her senses, and for two years after that being in almost constant pain and weakness. Moreover, while Laura lost her sense of smell almost entirely, Helen's became preternaturally keen, and was a source, as she records, of keen delight.

Hence, even if the original mental endowments in each case had been equal, Helen's mind, at the time when her education was begun, was considerably better prepared to respond to a stimulus from without than was Laura's at the same stage. A factor of some importance in Laura's early childhood was her companion, "Uncle" Asa Tenney, a rough, unlettered, eccentric, but tender-hearted man, who used to take her out to walk in the fields and woods, and led her to feel the trees and rocks and to plunge her hands in the rippling brook. Yet even this companionship was brought to her, which Helen sought out for herself in whatever lay around her.

As to Laura's ideas regarding sight and hearing, Dr. Sanford, of Clark University, who has made a keen analysis of her case from the records, notes that while she had a tolerable notion of the extent to which our eyes serve us in re-

porting the shape and size and distance of objects, it is only of the sensations produced by light and darkness that she writes as one having felt them. As her vision was totally destroyed, this must have been an effect of sub-conscious recollection—unless indeed she confuses the temperature sense as affected by the sunshine with the sense of sight. Helen seems from an early age to have written of what she "saw" and "heard," just as a normal person would. Something of this is no doubt due to her amazing power of assimilating language, but the fact that she never is betrayed into a false analogy nor strikes the wrong note shows that she is not repeating a lesson by rote, but is expressing a genuine feeling. Recollection of sensations received earlier than twenty months will not explain this. It must be, seemingly, the translation by analogy of a range of equally delicate and accurate impressions received through other senses. Why not? The changes in the brain by which we recognize the rose as red, the grass as green, cannot be the same changes which in these objects cause the redness and the greenness. All is, the same set of outward phenomena always induce the corresponding mental phenomena. So if, by whatever delicate and complex sense impressions, unknown to us, Miss Keller perceives the strength, dignity, authority, repose, which Michel Angelo expressed in his "Moses," and which you and I can learn only by sight, she "sees" the statue in as real a sense as we do. As to hearing, it is probable Laura had a less clear conception of that than of sight. Like many deaf persons, being conscious of aerial vibration to a much higher degree than most hearing persons are, recognizing not only the rhythm but the intensity and to some extent the pitch of sounds, it was from that very fact harder for her to think of audition as differing in kind as well as in degree from her own sensation of "hearing with the feet."

The principles on which the education of both girls was based were substantially the same, and it is a high tribute to Dr. Howe's genius that the application of twentieth century pedagogy and psychology to the problem only, for the most part, traces out the path he blazed before. "Most can raise the flowers, for all have got the seed." But Miss Sullivan

not only grasped and supplied the principles with intelligence and ingenuity: she made decided improvements in methods and added at least one important principle—that of beginning with unceasing talk by the finger alphabet and persisting in it in the face of a total lack of comprehension on the child's part. Perhaps only a specially attractive teacher with an especially inquisitive child could succeed as she did, but the fact remains that while Helen seems to have been no quicker than Laura was to grasp the fundamental idea of the connection between the word and the thing (it was a matter of weeks with each), that illumining ray developed in her mind almost at once the latent images of ten, twenty, forty words, while Laura was still obliged to toil slowly, painfully, to add word by word to her vocabulary. This sudden fruitage after two months of seemingly useless cultivation shows the deep wisdom of Miss Sullivan's plan.

Miss Sullivan was fortunate in being possessed by the spirit of modern education and so being free from the obsession of the printed book as the great means of teaching. Evidently a lover and a well-read student of the Book of Nature, she took Helen afield and showed her all the familiar objects of meadow and wood and stream and swamp and hill, explaining everything both in its familiar every-day aspects and in its relation to life and to the great forces which sway the universe. Laura's teachers, living in a city and in an institution, had not the opportunity, even if they had the ability, to lay such a groundwork of sound knowledge. Their work indeed was evidently reaching out toward such an ideal and showed psychological insight far in advance of their day. But when we compare Helen in her first year or two of instruction eagerly feeling an egg, breaking it open to feel the contents, examining the chipped edges of one newly hatched, plying her teachers with questions, and learning the history of the life processes involved, and then think of the fifteen-year old Laura painfully recalling something she had studied in her book about "chyle" and "chyme,"—we feel that we behold a new heaven and a new earth, educationally.

The religious development of the two presents some striking resemblances. Both were, apparently, the children of

Calvinistic parents. But these parents were, rather to our surprise, willing to entrust the religious training of the children to the teachers, who seem to have held a more liberal creed. In both cases no teaching was given on any of the points which divide our "two and seventy jarring sects," nor, indeed, at first, on the principles of natural religion. In both cases the logical faculty, after learning that many effects are produced with a purpose by the intelligence of man, and that other effects, seemingly also purposed, are beyond human power, demanded to know the Author of these higher results. Laura at once received and welcomed what is understood as the "liberal Christian" theory, and developed a lovely Christian faith and character based on that view of the soul's relation to God. Helen's teacher answered her early enquiries by presenting what we hope it is not disrespectful either to that lady or to the Supreme Being to characterize as the "humiferous ether theory" of God—an all-pervading Presence, all-efficient and incomprehensible. Helen's keen intelligence rejected summarily an attempt on the part of some well-meaning friends to present a stereotyped expression of conventional religious views, but later, in converse with that great interpreter of religion, Phillips Brooks, she found an idea of God that met the wants of the human heart without violating the human reason. In later life Laura was proselyted by friends of the Baptist faith, underwent the process of conversion, and joined the church. In the opinion of her Boston friends this was a backward step in her spiritual development, causing narrowness, acerbity, and self-righteousness to which she had been a stranger, and which she, fortunately, outgrew. There may, however, be another side to this experience, less apparent from outside.

Laura Bridgman's organization seems to have been, on certain planes, as fine as Helen Keller's. Her native refinement is shown by the fact that, coming from a plain country home into association with persons belonging to circles of the highest culture, she fell instinctively into all the little customs of polite society which are based on consideration for others, whereas those which are merely conventions had to be drilled into her by frequent repetitions. Her exquisite neat-

ness, her deftness of movement, her keen intuitions as to character, the sensitiveness of her conscience, were those of a nature refined and delicate to a high degree. Her intelligence, on the level of every-day matters, was as quick as any one's. In colloquial language and the subjects generally treated of in such language she was at home.

When we pass above that level in thought, in language, in aspiration, her limitations appear. Though she seems to have had a pretty good comprehension of "book language," she never was able to use it herself with grace or even with correctness, although she almost always makes her meaning plain. Living in daily intercourse with Dr. Howe, her journal, so far as appears, makes no mention of the Fugitive Slave Law or of Kossuth or of Garibaldi. Of the great men who came to see her, no word of hers shows any apprehension of what they stood for in the world outside.

Yet, I think, some qualification must be made in this estimate of her. Her "poetry"—crude, pathetic, ludicrous if it were not so pathetic—shows a mind, if low lying and level-lined, "yet also nigh to Heaven and loved of loftiest stars." Of rhyme or rhythm it is, as we might suppose, guiltless. But there are imaginative ideas in picturesque expression and there is a definite poetic form—that of Hebrew poetry, consisting in the parallelism of two repeated sentences or else in their sharp contrast. We admire in the world-poet Isaiah such lines as

The Lord will come with fire,
And with his chariots like a whirlwind,
To render his anger with fury,
And his rebuke with flames of fire.

Why should we not allow some poetic feeling to the writer of the poem "On Light and Darkness," from which we take the following—

Light is more brilliant than ruby, even diamond.
Light is whiter than snow.
Darkness is night-like,
It looks as black as iron
Darkness is a sorrow.
Light yields a shooting joy through the human heart.

And if "Love is the fulfilling of the law," if it be "the very bond of peace and of all virtues," then Laura Bridgman, who surely "loved much," should, by God's tests, rank high in the human scale.

Miss Keller's literary skill and attainments are familiar to us all; only one point claims notice here. Her writings show a wonderful "ear" for the niceties of spoken language—the rhythm and balance of the sentence, the recurrence of pleasing sounds, the suiting of the cadences to the meaning; how is it accounted for? Must it not be that her knowledge of speech, her delicate sense of the muscular movements involved in vocalization, supplemented by what her wonderful fingers report as to these fugitive shadings in the utterance of her friends, give her this fine sense which enables her to marshal her words in a Pyrrhic dance, an ordered march, or a battle-charge? Should she choose to subject what she writes to metrical form, even the most exacting, in which

Hard, hard, hard is it, only not to tumble,
So fantastical is the dainty metre,

we do not doubt that she would succeed.

We close this account of Laura Bridgman's life with the feeling that the time will never come when the story so admirably and fully told will cease to be of deep interest to students of the human mind and lovers of the human soul.

WESTON JENKINS,
Instructor in the Alabama School, Talledega, Alabama.

THE SEVENTEENTH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

GALLAUDET COLLEGE,
WASHINGTON, D. C., *Dec. 18, 1903.*

To the Members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf:

At the last meeting of the Convention, held in Buffalo in July, 1901, it was decided to accept the invitation of the authorities of the North Carolina School for the Deaf at Morganton, to hold the next Convention at that School.

This meeting, in accordance with our custom, would be held in the summer of 1904, but, as you are all aware, there is to be a very interesting exposition in progress during next summer at St. Louis. Much discussion has been had among members of the Convention with regard to the desirability of postponing its next meeting so that it shall not conflict with the Exposition, and after very full consideration the Standing Executive Committee of the Convention has voted to postpone the meeting until the summer of 1905.

The authorities of the North Carolina School, while regretting that conditions are such as to require the postponement of the Convention, are satisfied that this will be the wisest course to pursue. They promise a cordial welcome to the Convention in the summer of 1905, and hope for a large attendance of members.

E. M. GALLAUDET,
President of the Convention.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Arkansas Institute — Miss Frances E. Gillespie, head teacher of the speech department, has resigned to pursue a course of study in the University of Chicago, in order to fit herself more fully for the work. Miss Cordelia Andrews has been promoted to fill the vacancy, and Mr. I. S. Humbert has been elected to Miss Andrews's place. Mr. Arthur G. Mashburn, of the manual department, has been very ill with typhoid fever, but has now recovered and resumed his work.

Horace Mann School — The Parents' Education Association connected with this School has published a booklet of 28 pages entitled "An Offering in Behalf of the Deaf," written by Elizabeth Porter Gould. It gives a history of the Association and of the School, and pays a well-deserved tribute of admiration to Miss Sarah Fuller, who has been the Principal of the School since its establishment in 1869.

Indian Territory School.—A school for the deaf and the blind has recently been established at Fort Gibson, Indian Territory, and Mrs. Lizzie Renfro, a daughter of Mr. J. W. Michaels, of the Arkansas Institute, has been appointed teacher of the deaf.

Indiana Institution.—Mr. Johnson's "Outlines" for 1903-'04, in addition to the usual statement of the course of study, assignment of work, regulations, etc., contains some valuable information concerning the causes and nature of deafness, the mechanism of the organ of hearing, tests of deafness, and other matters of interest to the deaf and their friends.

Iowa School.—A high-grade stereopticon with Edison's kinetoscope attachment and films has been purchased for \$375; also from the Columbia School Supply Company one of their "cabinets" for demonstration and experiments in natural philosophy for \$400, and from the Rochester Optical Company a "Premo Supreme" camera for the class in photography at a cost of \$160.

Florida School.—The name has been changed by the legislature from "Institute" to "School," and all such words as "inmates," "indigent," "asylum," and "charity," have been stricken from the statutes governing the school.

Miss Frances K. Bell, late of the North Carolina School, and Miss Sadie Lillard, trained for oral work at Mt. Airy, have been added to the corps of instruction.

Louisiana Institute.—Miss Lella M. Dedman, lately of the North Dakota School, and Miss Frances Holloway, who took a course of training in speech teaching at Danville, Kentucky, succeed Miss Ernestine Jastremski, now connected with the Minnesota School, and Miss Hettie I. Patterson, who has gone to the Illinois School.

Mackay Institution.—Miss Edna Shirley has been added to the staff vice Miss Elizabeth Duncan, who resigned on account of ill health. Miss Shirley is a graduate of the Rhode Island School training class.

Maryland School.—Miss H. Ruth Griswold, a graduate of the New Haven Normal School of Gymnastics, who formerly taught for two years in the South Carolina School, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Michigan School.—Mr. Willie Hubbard completed his fortieth year of service as a faithful and beloved teacher in this School November 11, 1903. His associates celebrated the occasion by presenting him with a handsome roll-top desk and a revolving office chair. The presentation address was made by Mr. Thomas L. Brown, who completed his own fortieth year of service five years ago. These two men have taught continuously under every superintendent the School has had, and we hope there are yet many years of successful work for them in the future.

Minnesota School.—The honorary degree of LL. D. has been conferred upon Mr. J. L. Tate, Superintendent, by Westminster College, his *Alma Mater*.

Miss Grace M. Jewell, of Rome, New York, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Mississippi Institution.—The honorary degree of LL. D. has been conferred upon Mr. J. R. Dobyns, Superintendent, by Westminster College, his *Alma Mater*.

North Carolina School.—Miss Helen J. Flagg, of Hartford, Connecticut, has been elected to fill a vacancy in the corps of instructors caused by the resignation of Miss Martha C. Bell, who went to the Pennsylvania Institution.

Pennsylvania Institution.—Miss Ida La Rue has resigned on account of failing health, and Miss Anna R. McClintock to be married. The position of the former was filled by the appointment of Miss Gertrude L. Dustan, formerly of the Clarke School; of the latter by the appointment of Miss Grace C. Williams, of the Pennsylvania Oral School.

South Dakota School.—Mr. James Simpson, late Superintendent of this School, died of pneumonia at Sioux Falls, South Dakota, November 16, 1903, aged forty-eight. He was born in Milford, Michigan, January 21, 1855. He was the youngest of six children, four of whom were congenitally deaf. Their deafness was only partial, but it increased as they grew older, though they never became totally deaf. They all learned to speak and read speech very well. William, the oldest brother, was such a good lip reader that in the Civil War he succeeded in passing the examination and enlisting as a soldier in the

United States Army. Another brother, Delos, founded the St. Louis Day-School for the Deaf, and conducted it successfully for several years. James was educated in the Michigan School and took an additional course in the High Class of the New York Institution. He taught in the Iowa School for three years, and in 1881, the second year of the establishment of the South Dakota School, he became its Superintendent, and remained in this position until last summer. He was married in 1880 to Annie Laura Wright, a graduate of the Iowa School, and had four children, all hearing. He was a man of energy, shrewdness, executive ability, and high character. Under his management the South Dakota School grew from five pupils to fifty, and in the place of a small house built for another purpose it acquired large grounds and fine buildings.

Tennessee School.—The School has sustained a serious loss in the death of its matron, Miss Sallie Jackson, and its steward, Mr. C. A. Gurley. Both had served the Institution faithfully and efficiently—Miss Jackson for twenty-three years and Mr. Gurley for thirteen years. Mr. Gurley died November 28 and Miss Jackson November 29.

Virginia School.—Miss F. Burr Way, teacher in the oral department, has resigned, and Miss Julia V. M. Tyler, of Radford, Virginia, has been elected to fill the vacancy.

Western Pennsylvania Institution.—A reception was given in the First Presbyterian Church of Wilkesburg, Pennsylvania, December 11, 1903, to Mr. George M. Teegarden, in commemoration of his continuous service as an efficient and successful teacher in this Institution since its establishment in 1876. Addresses were made by the Rev. Dr. John G. Brown, President of the Board of Trustees, Dr. William N. Burt, Principal, Mr. B. R. Allabough, and others. Mr. Teegarden's former pupils gave him Henry Thurston Peck's "Great Masterpieces" as a token of their gratitude and affection.

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CLASS GOVERNMENT.

CLASS government is an important question, one that cannot be passed over lightly or be dismissed with a few set rules. In fact no set of rules will fit every class or can be appropriated by every teacher. Here as nowhere else is the ingenuity and tact of the teacher taxed to the utmost.

Time is precious in the education of the deaf. We have no time to spend for the mere sake of discipline, but good order and good conduct in the schoolroom economize time. All class government, then, should have for its ultimate aim the practical upbuilding of the mind.

"The motive of school government is to give the child the power and the necessary reason to govern himself."

The sooner the child learns to act from his own *right* impulses the better for him through school as well as through life. The younger the child when he recognizes *right* the better.

In treating this question the following points will be considered :

1. The best means to secure and keep attention in the classroom.

2. How far should we strive to keep the children from talking in school?

3. Is it necessary to have "hard and fast" rules to govern the conduct of pupils in school?

4. How to prevent copying.

5. The best way to preserve order in the schoolrooms and halls.

1. One of the prime requisites to good order and harmony in the classroom is that the teacher be supreme—that his will be paramount. Supposing this to be so half the difficulty is eliminated, but then very often the other half is a most vexing problem.

It is easy enough for a born leader to govern. His pupils seem naturally to fall into a groove and follow without any apparent effort on his part. All teachers, however, are not so fortunate by birth, and it becomes necessary for some of us to study the ethics of government more or less. We cannot afford to expose our weak points to the attack of our pupils, and we know from experience that they are quick at finding where we are vulnerable.

To have and to hold universal attention in the classroom is something most earnestly to be wished for. How can we best obtain this desired end?

It is taken for granted that what the teacher writes on the board is a part of the language lesson for the day, consequently pupils should be expected to study and ponder every expression so presented, and memorize all new words and phrases, of course after they have been fully demonstrated. This tends to keep the pupils busy and fix their attention on something beneficial during the intervals when the teacher's attention is otherwise engaged. We should be deliberate—better be too slow than too fast for the average pupil. When addressing the whole class, either in writing or spelling, require the pupils to repeat sentences, questions, or words off-hand. We shall be surprised to find how often the pupils are dream-

ing—consequently not attentive, although their eyes are fixed on the teacher. When this practice is kept up pupils will gradually acquire the habit of attention during recitations.

Personal mention by working the names of the pupils into the lessons or compositions on the board will often wake up sleepy pupils. The pleasure of seeing one's name "in print" appeals to the deaf as well as to others. Watch those inclined to carelessness and ply them with questions.

In the recitation of lessons it is not advisable to stick too closely to the text. It often becomes irksome and then the attention of the child will begin to wander. "Side lights" can be worked in to promote and keep attention.

I think we cannot begin too soon to form in our pupils the habit of attention and application. From the beginning, classes ought to be managed with this object in view. The will power of the child should be directed into proper channels and it will, then, prove one of his most valuable adjuncts.

" Gifts count for little, *will* alone is great ;
All things give way before it, soon or late "

Some of the most intelligent deaf persons I know were either born deaf or lost their hearing at a very tender age. The secret of their success is simply that they learned the value of application early and practiced it late. Their will power was well developed. They practiced laboriously for themselves the repetitions which the hearing child receives without effort.

To secure and keep attention in the classroom, then, is to keep our pupils busy repeating and going over lessons previously studied—I do not say learned.

2. Talking is more fruitful of disorder in the classroom than anything else I know of unless it is idleness, but

talking is only a species of idleness. Mischief is mostly done by idlers, and talking is a thief of time as well as the mother of confusion. To promote order the proper thing is to stop all talking and direct the attention of the pupils into activities which will enable them to discover and maintain things for themselves. Give them a chance to select and pursue their own reading or study occasionally.

It may be objected that it is too much to expect the smaller pupils to keep steadily at work during the long hours of school. It would be better to have shorter hours for the younger pupils or have stated times during which they may talk and move about, but at all other times they should be made to understand there must be order and attention.

In the upper grades there is very little excuse for talking at all. If the pupils can be trained to discuss their studies and ask each other questions—not in signs—about their lessons, well and good. It conduces to the acquisition of ideas and language.

The ordinary talk of most of our pupils during school hours would be termed among hearing people the merest twaddle.

The inculcation of manliness and the extirpation of childishness in the upper grades ought effectually to do away with idle talking such as our pupils indulge in. Attempts on this line, in my classes, have resulted in some improvement at least.

In the lower grades the children have not acquired either the strength or the will to keep up continued application. As I said before, give them frequent recesses for relaxation. The judicious teacher can regulate the amount of the relaxation that is necessary. The more a child loves work the more energy he will bring to it. He is not likely to love it, however, unless he be trained to appreciate it.

3. We cannot lay down rules that will cover every case of disorder or misconduct on the part of the pupils without some modifications. It seems advisable to enforce rules strictly in some cases and in others leniently. To my mind it is the flexible, sliding rule that will do the most lasting good. The age, temperament, and health of the pupil must be taken into consideration.

Rigidity of enforcement should be employed only so far as to accomplish desired ends without causing bitterness of feeling. What may be but a light requirement from one may be a burden to another and consequently too severe. We have to know our pupils before we can enforce our rules.

If we have any rules at all it is understood that they must be complied with in spirit at least, but the mode of enforcing them may safely be left to the judgment of the teacher.

Circumstances in the schoolroom favorable to good order will not prevent some pupils from neglecting their studies or being guilty of misconduct. As the pupils grow older there are always some who get the notion that they are privileged individuals or that they can bully the teacher. These should be promptly suppressed, not only for their own good but for that of the class as well. Favoritism should have no place in the schoolroom.

How best to manage our young man and woman pupils inclined to childishness or presumptive arrogance is often a serious question. It should be solved by the teacher in charge, however, if possible.

I have in mind one young man who, as a toughened football player, imagined he could "tackle" his teacher and did actually make the attempt. He was promptly subdued, and ever after was almost a model of propriety in the schoolroom. Another, a young woman, set her teacher at defiance. She was promptly ignored and then turned over to the domestic department where she was

put to scrubbing and cleaning with the servants. Two or three days of this treatment restored her senses, and thereafter she made no more trouble in school.

This brings us to another phase of the question before us. Young people love to tease others whom they find they can tease. They will not even exempt their teacher if they discover they can do things that will cause him annoyance. We have been through all the stages of this character.

For the pupil who teases his classmates, extra duties or tasks will usually act as a deterrent; while the recipients of his sallies or tricks are taught not to mind. There is no satisfaction to the teaser when he finds that nobody cares for what he does.

When the teasing and annoying process is directed at the teacher, the best plan is simply to ignore it completely when he does not know who the would-be joker is. I have had pupils write on the board what they considered would be insulting or annoying to the teacher only to have it turned into a language lesson, and before that was through the author was heartily ashamed of it. In such matters as this the teacher may profitably sink his personality.

4. Many of our pupils are adepts at copying. Some have gone so far that it is second nature, seemingly. These habits are formed early, unless promptly checked by the watchful teacher. They are successfully practiced, too, in every class unless the wide-awake teacher discovers their methods.

Such habits of dependence should be broken up and in their stead self-reliance instilled. Show that it is noble and manly to be independent and a shame to beg, that is, to copy or take matter at second-hand—that such practice in large pupils is childish.

“Pupils must learn to do by doing.” When address-

ing or questioning the class require close attention from all. Allow no looking about to catch possible answers. Allow no pupil to make answer until called on to do so. Some pupils are quick at answering questions and delight in helping others. Their classmates fall into the habit of watching them to get their answers. The helper and the helped should be penalized alike. This will usually put a stop to copying.

For pupils, "Do it now and do it well," is a good motto.

5. To have the best order in the schoolroom and halls, it would seem best to have some general rules, such as would lead to harmony and uniformity. I refer to such order as affects the whole school. Classes should be discharged simultaneously and in regular order. They will not do it unless there are fixed rules governing the point.

To prevent talking, for instance, while dismissing and in the halls a uniform mode of carrying the hands might be devised—said position to be maintained until the pupils reach the point of dispersion. I think each and every teacher should go by a fixed rule in this respect. There cannot be good order without concert of action on the part of both pupil and teacher. Classes might start from their respective rooms at the same time on a given signal and dovetail as they move, each class to have its particular position to take in the line.

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THE FIRST TRAINING AND INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF-BLIND.

SINCE the publication of Helen Keller's life history in the *Ladies' Home Journal* there has been a renewed interest shown in the deaf-blind in general, and many and amusing are the wild-cat schemes for their higher instruction and the training of teachers for their especial benefit. From the hazy ideas put forth on the subject by the wise men one would suppose we had in the deaf-blind a new species of humanity, endowed with peculiar supernatural powers in compensation for the loss of the senses, and that a new pedagogy had been evolved in their instruction. But leaving all these fallacies of higher instruction and "new discoveries" in pedagogy to the Samson-like blows of *the* friend of the deaf-blind, Mr. William Wade, and to that excellent review of the "Story of My Life," by Mr. Weston Jenkins, found in the last November number of the *Annals*, I will proceed to the first instruction of the deaf-blind, the part through which I have had the unusual privilege of conducting six deaf-blind children in as many stages of growth, both of mind and body.

The faithful, earnest teacher or mother is best fitted by nature for this work; one of the kind who possess the faith that moves mountains, and the earnestness which, like charity, covers a multitude of sins—of omissions in pedagogical training; coupled with this the patience of Job, which endureth all things, even the advice and wisdom of the wise men. To one possessing all these qualifications, the latter especially, or even desiring to possess them, I would prescribe the training of a deaf-blind child for their cultivation, and would add the advice, Be thankful for these gifts, for they are often, like virtue, your only reward.

There are two separate and distinct classes of the deaf-

blind, with as many variations of each class as perhaps the number of deaf-blind themselves, but a clear recognition of the two classes will suffice at present. These two classes are the adventitiously and the congenitally deaf-blind. The first class is composed of those who through the accidents of disease, such as fever, meningitis, or other causes, have lost the senses of sight and hearing after birth; the other of those who, through some prenatal influence, were born without the senses of sight and hearing. This physical condition makes all the difference in the world in the child's mental condition.

The would-be instructor must have enough intuitive mother sense, or psychological training, to know what a normal child can or should be able to do at the different stages of growth. She must not be so far away from childhood memories that she cannot recall the experiences that gained for herself this stock of useful knowledge. Then she must have a little native common sense to see where and how this special knowledge and these experiences have failed to reach the deaf-blind child. She must know that no impressions reach the brain in the first period of existence except through the senses. A little thought and careful observation of the child's movements will show what senses have been used and what have lain dormant in the first stage of existence.

If a child has once seen and heard, even though for a few months only, he knows that there is an exterior world of things and people and that they have names and uses. This knowledge has been gained through direct contact with people and things, by the aid of the knowledge-giving senses, sight and hearing. Through the stimulus of sight and hearing curiosity has been aroused, and feet and hands have been used to satisfy its demands. Helen Keller says: "During the first nineteen months of my life I had caught glimpses of broad green fields, a luminous sky, trees and flowers, which the darkness that

followed could not wholly blot out. If we have once seen, the day is ours and *what the day has shown.*"

The italics are mine, used to emphasize the point that the knowledge of things in general is in the mind of an adventitiously deaf-blind child, though it may be in the way of latent memories awaiting the proper association and the magic touch of the instructor to call them into life.

When the word "water" was spelled in Helen's hand in connection *with water alone*, instantly the memory of the word "wawa" revived and she then was willing to take the names of things in this new method. She had given things no names orally and used no signs before this except perhaps only a short graphic movement, and hence was not slow to see that her teacher was giving a name in a new way. A congenitally deaf-blind child could never have done this as there would have been no former memory to call up.

There are many ways of knowing that a deaf-blind child has a stock of ideas on hand. One is by his use of signs invented by himself to represent these ideas, and by his feeling of things and even by the amount of temper he displays. Having a child of this class, the adventitiously deaf-blind, let the parent or teacher see to it that he continues the use of hands and feet in exploring the darkness about him; let them train him to dress and care for himself, to care for his personal belongings, having a place for everything and everything in its place, and to follow and assist in the round of household affairs. This is the one important thing that was done for Helen Keller by her *mother*.

If the child has not made its own signs, then give to each object and action a sign as graphic and comprehensive as possible. These signs need not necessarily be the conventional signs used by deaf-mutes, which are not always either graphic or comprehensive. To illustrate this point I can do no better than give some of

Ruby Rice's original signs, to show what I mean by graphic and comprehensive signs. Her sign for *man* was simply to indicate a moustache; for *woman* a coil of hair was indicated by twirling the fingers over the back of the head; for *water* a movement of turning the glass to the lips; for *milk* the same sign followed by a milking movement of the hands. It is impossible to mistake these signs when made, though they are difficult to describe.

Most of the adventitiously deaf-blind will have some signs to express their meagre ideas. All of whom I have any knowledge, from Laura Bridgman down to Ruby Rice, had them, except perhaps Thomas Stringer, whose instruction began in early infancy before the desire for communicating with others was felt. In case the child has become familiar with a few signs used to represent objects, then begin spelling the name of the object in connection with the sign and object, using the manual alphabet, allowing the child free use of his hand in feeling the letters as they are formed. By no means form the habit of placing each letter in the child's inactive palm. In this way the child will be able to read from the instructor's hand by placing his thumb on the wrist while his fingers rest lightly on the back of the hand. This discovery was made by Mr. Wade, and I find with my pupils that it is a more restful way for both teacher and child, as both can rest the elbow on a table when talking. However, at first it is best to allow the child's hand to play over the instructor's hand as he feels the desire, until he becomes familiar with the peculiarity of the hand and with the words.

Do not imagine that instruction means gaining a vocabulary alone, but take the child about and have him feel all the operations of ordinary life; let him feel the utensils and materials used in cooking and all household affairs; let him note the changes in nature, the fall of

rain, hail, or snow, and the growth of plants from leaf and bud to flower; take him to lakes and rivers, or, if this is impossible, to a pond and brook. Of course these things can be represented in the sand-pan, but there is danger in the lasting impression made by the comparative size. In short, have the deaf-blind child give attention, by the sense of touch, to everything about him that a normal child sees, if possible, and give every object and action a name by sign or spelling. Talk to him about these things in graphic signs or terse, short sentences. Many things will interest him, and he, too, will ask "Why?" like the seeing child, though it may be only a tap of the finger on the object. Give the verb in connection with the action, spelling out "run" and then running; the same with "sleep," "eat," "jump," "laugh," "sigh," etc. "Suit the action to the word and the word to the action," and think not of your dignity. But in the other class, the congenitally deaf-blind, who have never known persons or things, being deprived from birth of the knowledge-giving senses, sight and hearing, we have a more difficult problem. To such a child the mind is really a blank; no impressions have ever reached it other than hunger and thirst, heat and cold. There are no latent memories of an outside world; even the mother that attends it is a formless mass of clothing and finger-tips, for which it has no sign of recognition. The objects that surround it have no meaning as it does not know their uses or names. Nothing has been sensed in its entirety; everything it comes in contact with is nothing more than disjointed projections. The mother in her mistaken sympathy has rendered it still more helpless by feeding it, dressing it and carrying it in her arms, and in most cases it neither walks nor uses its hands. As the hand is the only medium left the congenitally deaf-blind child to gain sense impressions, it is consequently without the first impressions and ideas found in the adventitiously deaf-blind, and has no signs as it has no ideas to represent.

Begin with the formation of good personal habits, for it is sure to have none. Have perfect regularity in time and place in all things that pertain to the child's personality, eating, dressing, and habits of nature. It has been dressed all its life and still shows no interest in the process. Then hold the hands and put them through the mechanical process of dressing. They will hang limp and loose in the instructor's hand for many days, but by constant repetition of the same thing at regular intervals the attention will be aroused at last and finally some interest infused into the relaxed muscles, and this in turn reacts on the brain, and the child in time comes to know the touch of garments and even their smell, and goes through the customary movements of putting them on. Remember that everything done with a purpose develops the brain; then teach as many useful things in the way of caring for self as possible in these first days.

Nothing is of such vital interest to a congenitally deaf-blind child as eating. Always start the sign or spelling from this point; but first make him form the habit of eating with a fork or spoon, allowing nothing to reach the mouth that does not get there in this way except, of course, bread and milk. It will be necessary to hold the child's hand on the spoon on its way to and from the plate, and he is sure to drop it or throw it when the mouth is filled. Simply replace it and continue the process until by degrees the hand can be withdrawn.

After the habit of eating and dressing has been fixed it is necessary to have the child perform these things intelligently, that is, recognize their performance by some sign. Development may stop with the formation of habits unless new habits can be grafted onto the old, so give a sign for the object or action desired, as laying the head on the hand for "sleep" or "bed," putting the fingers to the lips repeatedly for "eat," etc. Then put the child through the motions until you are sure he associates

the two. Then require him to make them before obtaining the object desired. This is a slow process and the instructor must possess her soul in patience and repeat the lesson until the brain is strong enough to will the hands to respond to its directions.

From this point both classes will be instructed in the same manner, though the congenitally deaf-blind child will progress very much slower, and it is yet doubtful to what extent his education can be carried, as there are, so far as I know, only seven congenitally deaf-blind children on record—one in Sweden, whose education was abandoned because "it made disagreeable noises," two in Mississippi, and four in Texas.

I know there is a diversity of opinion as to the advisability of giving signs to the deaf-blind. In their behalf I will say that the brain of a congenitally deaf-blind child in the first stage of development is too immature to discriminate between the number of finger movements necessary to form the word, but it is capable of comprehending one single movement or sign, especially if it is indicative of the thing or act itself, while an adventitiously deaf-blind child is sure to have a few signs of its own making, and will not require others unless very young. Our object is to get into communication with the child, and signs afford the quickest and shortest route. I know also that some superintendents and principals have great faith in the four walls of the schoolroom, the books, models, and geometric forms, as interpreters of the world and the fulness thereof, but I claim nature as the best book and the objects of nature in their own setting the best models. Have models by all means, but they can never do more than represent the real thing known, and were never meant to take its place. At best they stand for objective knowledge and make the transition to symbolical knowledge more easy.

Perhaps I should add that any of the many raised types used for the blind may be used for the deaf-blind. Begin by writing the name of some object of interest. Have the child turn the word so that he shall read towards his body, as in this way an entire word can be felt with one touch of the fingers without the up-and-down movement required when it reads from left to right. The child will feel the letters with the left hand while making them with the right hand in the manual alphabet. Continue this until the alphabet is known, and then the child may be turned loose to browse among all the books possible. He will hunt words as an ordinary child hunts pictures, with this difference, that many words and phrases will be imbibed unconsciously.

From this stage on the instructor may well let her own discretion be her tutor if she has been faithful in bringing the child into contact with the things about him. The first seven or eight years the mind is naturally most interested in material things. It is called the constructive age, though more often considered the destructive age by parents, but this is the child's way of finding how things are made and why. By this incessant pulling things to pieces and attempting to put them together he trains the muscles to co-ordination, and lays up a store of physical conceptions which Dr. James says "are the basis of his knowledge of the physical world about him." "Feed the growing human being; feed him with the sort of experiences for which, from year to year, he shows a natural craving, and he will develop in adult life a sounder sort of mental tissue, even though he may seem to be 'wasting' a great deal of his growing time in the eyes of those for whom the only channels of learning are books and verbally communicated information."

This is the whole law and gospel of the affair; only the blind-deaf will not show a "craving" at first, and the in-

structor must not only know what they should crave but must supply the means for producing this natural tendency.

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EDITH'S FIRST TWO YEARS AT SCHOOL.*—III.

(Miss Taliaferro's Journal, continued.)

March 10.—The lesson to-day began with the picture of a boy jumping. Edith had been drilled on that verb in the morning, so she was quite ready with it, although she wrote *man* for *boy*. There is a degree of accuracy and self-confidence that did not characterize her work some weeks ago. She looks at each picture when told, demonstrates its action, and goes to the board at once to write.

Nowadays the child seems to be unable to tell you how much she loves her mother and sister. She is constantly making signs for them and murmuring "May." This is the second time she has displayed any knowledge of people existing in the outside world, or not immediately associated with school life. She is quick to notice laziness in the children around her, and if it is in her power to promote their attention or excite their interest she will do so by a kindly push with her hand or a friendly coaxing smile. Her face is gaining in expression, and she seldom now rolls her eyes or stares into space as she used to do.

After she had written about eight sentences, using "jumped," she was given the verb "fell," upon which she had practiced a little in the morning. Here, again, there

* Continued from the January number of the *Annals*, page 36.

was no hesitation. First she wrote "A baby fell," with a slight error in *baby*, and so on with her lesson, assisted now and then by a written form. After these sentences were completed they were erased and a number of rubber objects placed on the table. As each object was made to jump or fall as the teacher chose, Edith quickly explained it in sentence form. When the sheep fell she was much amused and wanted to write quickly, but had to wait till she was set straight on "sheep," and corrected for putting an extra *l* in the verb.

March 11.—Review work to-day, with the object of giving Edith harder lessons in names of persons. At present she knows only Golding's and her own.

March 13.—NOTE.—To keep up a child's interest in the same subject great care should be exercised not to carry repetition too far.

Vary the programme as much as possible; that is, change the way of teaching the same subject. It is not only a novelty to the child, but also a good test of his understanding; he will do his work all the better. If a teacher will exercise a little ingenuity he will be surprised to see how many different interesting plans may be formed of really old material.

Yesterday's lesson was a list of verbs. To-day, however, this will be dispensed with and a new plan followed. The following names were placed on the board: Golding, You, Webb, Miller. Edith very patiently copied each or traced, as her teacher saw she needed. After this was completed the work was erased. Now there were four panels of our board, and a name was placed in each panel, to be repeated many times. This morning her work was exceptionally good. This writing in panels was done to keep the child from being confused and prepare her to be able to associate the names with the children in a short time.

Again the order of names was reversed, reading Edith,

You, Golding, Miller. Then the teacher pointed to the first panel and looked inquiringly at Edith. She did not understand this first name nor the others until told. Seeing she did not comprehend she was allowed to watch Louise's work. She knew the names. Then as her teacher sat, walked, jumped, read, ran, stood, slept, etc., she ran to the board and wrote the verb.

After Louise had completed her list Edith seemed more ready to go on with her work, for she wrote *ran* and *stood* with but little effort, and smiled and pointed to herself when finished, as if proud of her work. She needed a little help on "jumped," and when she wrote "sat" left out the *a*, but quickly saw her mistake and wrote the missing letter. Again she wrote *sheep* for *slept*, but this was not discouraging, since the two words look much alike. There were no written forms of these verbs on the boards. Now she was told she must write what she was doing (and to omit the use of the panels on which her name had been placed). She wrote, "I stood." Her teacher sat and she wrote "You sat." Next she jumped and started to write "You jumped," but when prompted wrote "I jumped." Mr. Kiesel pointed to himself and looked at the board. Edith quickly pointed to "You." He picked up a slate and read. Edith made the same mistake and wrote "I" instead of "You." This may have been thoughtlessness, for she pointed out the right word. It only goes to prove how much drill is necessary to make her sure of what she writes. The next step—"I slept"—was correct, but she failed again in writing the proper pronoun; although when asked as to who her teacher is she never fails to point to "You."

March 17.—To-day the teacher had many slips of paper each bearing a verb. Edith drew one, "ran," and quickly ran down the room. Then the teacher pointed to a pile of little slips upon which were different sentences. The first Edith rejected; it read "You ran;" the

second she grasped quickly, "I ran," then wrote it on the board.

Next the teacher drew slips from Edith. He illustrated the action by sitting. Edith started to write "I sat," but was at once sent to the little pile of sentences. She was unable to pick out the correct one, so Louise helped her. I may have been mistaken, but Edith seemed very stubborn to-day; no matter what was done she continued to be lazy and listless. She persisted in writing "I" for "You," although we are almost sure she knows the difference. She fretted a great deal about her work, and for this reason she was helped more than usual. After many repeated coaxings and kindnesses she refused to write, so the lesson was discontinued until she was ready to work again.

When she nodded her head to show that she was ready to work after being relegated to a dark closet for five minutes, she was allowed to go back to the board and started to work at once. She finished tracing *f* and wrote "I fell." When the word *jumped* was written she immediately illustrated it and completed the work by writing. Whenever she seemed uncertain about what to write she was sent trotting to the little pile and made to pick out the proper sentence. For the first time to-day she picked out the one she should have, "I slept," and wrote quickly.

March 18. —Mr. Kiesel says: "I give Edith lessons in the afternoon to study out of school in the evening, in which the same verb and names have been and will be used for several weeks. Each lesson consists of new combinations, but they really are the old words. The advantage to Edith is that her memory is trained at the same time that her habits of study are in formation. There are three divisions in the class that require all my time for the giving of lessons, yet I manage to prepare Edith's. If she forgets anything she has learned in the lesson, I always stop and explain, then require her to

read it over again to be sure she understands it thoroughly. At last she spells every word. If she fails she has to spell again one sentence at a time. She is then sent to the blackboard to write the lesson out, pausing now and then to read and memorize as she goes along.

"One of the ladies who has charge of the girls during the evening study hour says that Edith is faithful and tries hard to study. In the morning she does not write her lesson at once. She reads it first and after writing one sentence must refer to her paper again. The lesson finished she rubs it out and rewrites it. However she does pretty well considering the short time she has to prepare during the afternoon. On the whole, she shows decided improvement, growing more studious and painstaking.

"It is a matter of time when Edith will be able to study and write without re-reading her lesson, for when she watches what other children do she will gradually fall into line."

Some Past Lessons which were assigned to Edith.

- | | | |
|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| (1) A girl slept. | (2) A man read. | (3) A sheep jumped. |
| A man slept. | A girl read. | A pig jumped. |
| A pig slept. | A boy read. | A hen slept. |
| A bird slept. | A woman read. | A man read. |
| (4) A horse fell. | (5) A rabbit stood. | (6) I ran. |
| A baby fell. | A rabbit sat. | I fell. |
| A goat jumped. | A frog slept. | I jumped. |
| A sheep slept. | A frog jumped. | I read. |
| A man read. | | I slept. |
| (7) You stood. | (8) I slept. | (9) Golding sat. |
| You read. | You sat. | Golding jumped. |
| You jumped. | I jumped. | Golding fell. |
| You slept. | You fell. | Golding read. |
| You sat. | | Golding stood. |

(10) Miller ran.
Miller slept.
Miller jumped.
Miller fell.
Miller read.
Miller stood.

(11) I read.
A goat fell.
Golding jumped.
A bird slept.

March 20.—To-day for a little relaxation lesson a number of words, chosen at random, were put on the board for the different lessons. The children gathered about their teacher, with Edith the centre of attraction. The list of words consisted in part of *girl, hen, goat, man, boy, rabbit, baby, Golding, Miller, you, ran, jumped, stood, etc., etc.* Edith liked to spell and did not tire, although the list was long. As she completed each word, using the manual alphabet very well, she was greeted with smiles on all sides. She has not had many lessons in finger-spelling, but has retained all that she has ever learned. This is gratifying, especially as we see her mind is forming itself in logical channels. She rarely confuses her letters and easily now distinguishes *m* from *n*. After this we started a spelling game. The teacher pointed to a word on the board, such as *baby*. Then, without looking, each child, Edith in particular, was asked to spell on the fingers the word previously designated. When the child had spelled correctly she was to hasten to the board and write. An air of playful rivalry won their hearts, and smiles and good-natured hustling began to characterize the lesson.

March 24.—NOTE. When one is beginning to express himself in language, he must of necessity have a fair knowledge of words and also be interested or have a desire to express his thoughts. These games are an incentive to this end. If one can write words correctly the way is paved for him to put those words together intelligently, and he can now remember more than a few words at a

time. By these games the teacher's burden is lightened (he only directs). They also teach the child to be neat, give him the ability to express his thoughts in writing, develop independence, self-reliance, and self-confidence.

For the lesson to-day many little rubber objects were placed upon the table. Then a pile of slips labelled "names of objects" and another "proper names" and a third "verbs." Miller was called to draw from the pile named "objects," then "verbs;" "cat" and "stood" were the words. She at once picked up a cat and made it stand. Edith wrote at once "A cat stood." She drew "rabbit" and "jumped," hesitated a little over the object, but got it without being told. Her trouble came in writing. However these little mistakes and hesitations are but trifles, for her attitude toward her work is the chief thing. She seems to grasp the idea in the games, and is rarely at a loss to know what to do.

When she drew again, "I sat" was the combination. On being asked to perform the action, she quickly sat down. Then she drew "boy" and "read." There are many bright pictures on the wall, but her attention had never been called to any of them. Nevertheless when given the pointer to-day she immediately pointed to a boy reading a book and wrote in quite an off-hand fashion, "A boy read." "You" caused her no trouble whatever. She knew it at once and when Mr. Kiesel *sat* just to see what she would do (her slip read "*stood*") she shook her head and showed him what to do. When she drew "bird" and "fell" she knew what to do, but was much distressed for fear of breaking the bird. Her proper name was "Miller" and she looked very knowingly at her companion. When she saw her sleep she seemed well pleased and wrote "Miller slept." When she left out of *Miller* she hastened to correct herself.

The rubber hen not being as perfect as it should be, she was given a book with a picture of a hen in it. She pointed to the right picture and wrote "A hen sat."

March 26.—At present the evening lessons are being reviewed, that Edith may have time to learn a few new verbs and have practice in copying them on the black-board.

By this time she should write her lesson without reading it over. This morning she did try to do this, but the paper was taken away, so she had to write a little differently. However, she was encouraged in originality. The lesson read :

I read.
A pig fell.
Golding jumped.
A bird slept.
Miller stood.

Edith seemed not to have studied it thoroughly, so had to throw herself on her own resources and wrote the following :

I read.
Golding fell.
A bird slept.
Miller stood.

The new verbs are *danced*, *bowed*, and *sewed*. Edith copied them surprisingly well (it used to require a long time to copy a word correctly). She is able now to write each verb from memory after copying it only once or twice. For example, "A boy danced" and other sentences would be written for her. Then proper names and personal pronouns (you and I) were used for subjects. "Golding sewed." "I bowed." "Miller danced." "You bowed," etc. Edith did all this well and with little or no hesitation.

NOTE.—A child whose mental condition is so far below normal should not be forced unduly—nothing is gained by hurry. Practice and patience are the chief essentials to success. One thing at a time and that done well is an old adage that certainly applies well in a case of this kind.

When the child has *learned* several verbs the teacher may give him two new verbs or more at a time *only to copy*. After copying them several times, drilling on one verb until it is without errors, it would be a good plan to have the child write them from memory. This is one of the best ways to cultivate the memory. Then much less time will be required when drill in the new verbs begins. The result will be seen below.

On the board were placed many words: "Miller, Young, sewed, bowed, danced, you, I, Golding, Webb." Edith was not familiar with all the words. But she was left to herself to copy all of them, and this she did in a surprisingly short time. Her teacher did not stand beside her, but seemed to all appearances to be unconscious of her presence. The child went ahead, never stopping until finished. Next came the usually trying ordeal of teaching the meanings of the verbs and a very pleasant one it proved itself.

The first verb selected was *danced*, and it was illustrated by means of the picture book. Edith and Louise were taken together and given the sentence, "A boy danced." They looked at the pictures, danced around gaily, and before going to the board Edith spelled the sentence. At no time did she show the least hesitation or confusion, but wrote very deliberately "A girl danced." They next wrote, and Edith continued to be cool and collected until they wrote "A man danced," when she stopped to make sure of "man," but quickly resumed her work. One more sentence, "A woman danced," and all the work was erased. Edith was told to dance and afterwards motioned to the board. She started to make *A*, but when told she herself danced, wrote, "I danced." Then she watched Louise dance. It amused her extremely, and she ran to her board making Louise's sign, and wrote the name she has always used, "Golding." She left out the *n*, but when corrected

took it as a matter of course. When Mr. Kiesel danced she wrote very quickly, "You danced." When she had finished she was about to erase "You" to write it better. This she was not allowed to do, for erasing only wastes time and tends to promote inaccuracy. Suddenly her teacher went back to the pictures, calling their attention to a dog in the act of dancing. Edith laughed aloud and wrote correctly "A dog danced." The teacher then took a rubber baby, dressed it in a handkerchief, and danced it up and down. Edith kept time with her head murmuring "baby," "baby," but wrote "boy," signing at the same time that she did not know it. She was shown a picture with the written word and then wrote correctly.

March 31.—The evening lesson for last night was: "A boy danced. A girl danced. I danced. Golding danced." Edith prepared her lesson very well indeed. If she forgot anything she would stop a minute to think and then write correctly.

The object of our class lesson was to teach new verbs. The first one was *sewed*. Edith and Louise were each given a tablet and pencil upon which they first wrote their names. Then they were shown cloth, needle, and thread, and the action was performed. They watched carefully, and often seeing the verb upon the board each wrote, "You sewed." It will be noticed that paper was used for one lesson. This was done purposely, so that they might become familiar with the pencil as well as the crayon. Louise took the needle, thread, and piece of paper to show her handiwork, and Edith, after looking inquiringly around, started to write "Golding," but Louise interrupted her and thus threw her off the track. Edith soon regained her composure and wrote correctly. I took the material and began to sew. Louise wrote at once "A woman sewed:" Edith was slower; she first made my sign, then the sign for *girl*, but wrote *man*. When her teacher shook his head at her work she made a gesture as if to

say "How stupid of me!" (which she has done before), and then wrote "A woman sewed." The rubber man was then made to do some work, which was correctly described by both children, after which Edith sewed and wrote, although very slowly, "I sewed."

Heretofore copies of the evening lessons have been made for the children, but to-day they must do it for themselves. Louise copied directly from the board, but Edith copied from the tablet. Everything is done that will help Edith to think and work for herself, from which she will derive more pleasure than she could have from having everything done for her. After the copying was finished the sentences were reviewed, to make sure that each child understood what she was going to study, and each word was also carefully spelled upon the fingers first from the board, afterwards from memory. "A girl sewed. A woman sewed. Miller sewed. Webb sewed."

April 1.—For a long time there has been noticed a very strong and growing desire on Edith's part to be continually erasing. This fault, together with the fact that she does not as a rule work rapidly, caused her teacher to devise a simple scheme to remedy it if possible. A list of nearly all the nouns we have had was placed on the board. Edith was set to copying them on paper. She was made to understand that she must not erase or rewrite. When she came to "Edith" she was much opposed to writing it, but wanted to write "I." As a whole, her work was good. The words of our list were selected so that they might be used in teaching the new verb "bowed." Edith will now be perfectly familiar with her words, and should find no trouble in spelling the nouns of her lesson off-hand. The verb was written on the board, and the lesson began by asking what it meant. Naturally, the children's faces expressed complete ignorance but certainly not indifference. They seemed anxious to know more, so they were ushered over to the old stand by the scrap-book

and shown many pictures of men, women, and children bowing. Each child bowed as gracefully as possible, and when the first word in the list was pointed out wrote "A girl bowed," and continued to form these little sentences until the list was exhausted. Edith's work, as usual, was sometimes painfully slow, but such a lesson as this, in which many words confront her at once, will be a great help toward attaining a certain degree of rapidity.

Lesson for this evening :

Joseph bowed.
You bowed.
A man bowed.
A baby bowed.

Three examinations are held during the school term, the first before Christmas, the second before Easter, and the third in June.

Edith's examination before Christmas was rather mechanical, consisting of simple sentences written from pictures with only one verb, "ran." At this time (Easter) there could still not much be expected of her. She made simple original sentences without pictures, formed from the fifteen verbs which she now knew. She wrote the article "a" and the first letters of proper nouns with small letters. But she had to rely entirely on her own judgment in all her work as no help was allowed her. She took subjects for the verbs entirely from her own memory. The encouraging features of her work were that she tried to do her best and kept her mind on the work from beginning to end, notwithstanding she was using lined foolscap, which she was not used to, and the unavoidable noises made by the others.

This examination certainly proves that her power of retention is developing. It would not have caused those who know her much surprise had she forgotten everything that she had learned.

Everyone knows children do not always do as good work at examinations as during the usual routine of school work, yet Edith knew what she was about and stood the test pretty well.

April 8.—The lesson to-day began with the attempt to make the letter H. First many of the letters were written on the board with a slate pencil for Edith to trace. She began work in a good humor and succeeded pretty well. The object in teaching the letters of this lesson is of a preparatory nature. She must become familiar with the pronouns He and She so that she will soon be able to write short stories, as : A boy stood. He ran. He fell. A girl sat. She ran. She fell, etc.

New verbs and nouns and proper nouns are given with the ones that are easiest for her. These are selected for a rapid writing lesson. It also improves her vocabulary and penmanship. She made a splendid S. Now there were verbs put on the board for her to copy. This also was well done. She wrote boldly and did not take her hand from the board as much as usual, but made more continuous strokes. The following was written :

A boy played.
I played.
John played.
A girl hopped.
John hopped.

She was then taught the meaning of the two new verbs as we have described the teaching of other verbs.

April 16.—The object of to-day's lesson was to teach pronouns and to introduce the idea of little stories, some without what might be called a climax, but leading later to narratives of a more exciting character, in which perhaps "A little boy walked. He ran. He fell."

First Edith stood, then sat and read, Louise doing the

same. Each child wrote "I stood, I sat, I read," and erased, went through the same performance, and wrote again, in order to become familiar with "I" and the form of writing. The teacher did the same, and the children wrote "You," etc. After this they wrote again to make sure of "You," and did the same a third time.

Conclusion.

Teaching Edith to write short stories will be simply repeating the dull process gone over in teaching her letters and sentences. It will require exhaustive labor to bring her through the different steps and grades and give her a clear comprehension of what is required of her.

As yet it is too soon to judge of her future, but her age is the chief disadvantage under which she labors. On the other hand there is reason to hope for fair progress as she has three great advantages, namely, hearing, health, and perseverance.

If there are any who think she should have accomplished more in two years than merely the writing of a few words and sentences, let them pause a moment and consider that it was not only two years of training that we gave her but that we had to work against fourteen years of non-training. She had lived fourteen years in the world, with good hearing, intelligent parents, brothers, and sisters, and other favorable environment, and yet she knew nothing when she came to school.

The good that will come to her as a result of this training we may never know, but let us not concern ourselves too much about results. It is not always one's privilege to see the fruit of his labor. It is with the true teacher as some one has said of the true author: "He writes with the thought of reaching the hearts of his readers, giving them something of vital value, something that will broaden, sweeten, enrich, and beautify their lives, that will lead

them to the finding of the higher life, and with it the higher powers and the higher joys." When we teach with that thought the "results" will take care of themselves.

THEODORE A. KIESEL,
Instructor in the Kendall School, Washington, D. C.

THE WISCONSIN ROUND-TABLE.

MISS FRANCES WETTSTEIN, Chairman of the Deaf School Section of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, had the pleasure of welcoming in her beautiful new school the large gathering of teachers of the Wisconsin day-schools for the deaf, and others interested in the work, who had assembled to attend the third Round-Table meeting of the Section at the Milwaukee Day-School for the Deaf on the afternoon of December 30, 1903. The little rooms of the school presented a holiday appearance in the wealth of flowers and the display of pictures and the handiwork of the pupils. The fact that the newly-elected President of the State Teachers' Association, Mr. E. W. Walker, Superintendent of the State School for the Deaf at Delavan, was to speak at the meeting, no doubt accounted for the attendance of a large number of public school teachers of the State.

Miss Wettstein introduced Miss ELSIE STEINKE, of the Delavan School, as the first speaker. Miss Steinke spoke on the auricular work carried on by her at the State School during the past semester. She said that many of the semi-deaf or partially deaf children in our institutions, while being too deaf to be taught in the public schools, possessed too much hearing to be wasted under the ordinary methods employed in schools for the deaf, and predicted the establishment in the future of intermediary

schools for the semi-deaf, as she thought present methods for their education did not suffice. They require special methods as near as possible to the normal, utilizing the dormant sense of hearing as an auxiliary in their education. In the same way that different parts of the body are developed by systematic exercise, the defective auditory nerve may be developed by intelligent and persistent training. The children take great pleasure in the work, and by their spontaneous talk give evidence of their appreciation of the boon they possess in their hearing.

A class of five pupils was produced to illustrate the work by the repetition of words and sentences.

Miss MARY E. McCOWEN, Supervising Principal of the Chicago Day-Schools for the Deaf, was the next speaker, taking for her subject, "Dramatization as an Educational Factor."

By way of introduction, Miss McCowen said that while she did not regard dramatization as all-important, it had been much neglected hitherto. Judiciously used it certainly would stimulate mental and moral growth. She said in part: "All education is growth in some direction. All growth in man is development through self-activity. In childhood this activity in the early stages may be simply the random instinctive movements of the babe, which are necessary for the proper development of the body, or the response to sense stimuli, which lead more directly to the cultivation of intelligence through the exercise of the senses of sight, hearing, taste, touch, and smell. The normal child passes through well-defined stages of activity in many directions, the transitions from one stage to another being so gradual as usually to attract little attention.

"By all educators play is now recognized as the avenue through which the child becomes acquainted with his environment. Since the impulse for self-expression is instinctive and imperative, and the child can only com-

municate what he really possesses until he has learned to dissemble, his free play must mirror his understanding of the world about him, or, at least, his interest in it.

"In enumerating the characteristics of plays or games, we find they easily fall into the following groups or classes, and all embody in varying degrees development through freedom, self-activity, self-expression, and dramatic reproduction. We have, then, intuitive plays, or those in which the child is busy discovering himself and his powers; representative plays, or those in which the child alone, or with companions, reproduces the life by which he is surrounded and, later, imaginary or ideal life; racial plays, or those in which the child reproduces the prehistoric experience of mankind, and traditional plays, which reflect the social conditions of the eras from which they were handed down.

"Froebel was the first to recognize the educative value of play. In formulating his philosophy of the kindergarten, he based his methods upon nature's laws as he observed them in operation in the evolution of the little child from a stage of unconscious involuntary movement to one of conscious self-directed action. He not only recognized the necessity for play in the economy of nature, but also the advantage of its proper direction with children, and incorporated both as necessary factors in his plan of education, and the progressive kindergarten of to-day makes free use of organized directed play in dramatic reproduction of the past, and also of the new and vital experiences of our own life and times. The elementary school, reaching out for helpful suggestions, has learned much from the kindergarten, and early appropriated its occupations, too often, it is true, without a knowledge of the underlying principles, when it becomes mere 'busy-work.' While adopting to some extent the kindergarten thought of freedom and of growth through self-activity, it has not fully realized, if at all, the real

significance of the play or dramatic instinct as an educative power."

Miss McCowen said further that in the reading exercises of our public schools children too often do not understand what they read, whereas if the thought were acted its meaning would at once be clear. She thought that literature would mean more to children who had acted out nursery rhyme, fairy story, nature myth, and history, and regarded it of vital help to the deaf since they lack that medium of expression which does most to awaken intelligence.

By a careful adaptation of kindergarten games and plays the child should be led onward in his understanding of life, the natural phenomena of time, the change of seasons, climate, the geography of his environment, and acquired skill of hand in the manipulation of different materials used, such as paper, cardboard, cloth, leather, tin, wood, etc. Blackboard drawing here becomes of great service and gives the child a foundation for later art work.

It is also a valuable auxiliary in testing the child's understanding of language. It leads to much exchange of opinion and research among books of reference, and gives the pupil a thorough understanding of language and a wide acquaintance with history, literature, geography, and science, cultivating at the same time grace and freedom of bodily expression.

The clever presentation of a Christmas play and the story of Hiawatha by children of the McCowen School for the Deaf, in charge of Miss CORNELIA BINGHAM, demonstrated the pleasure and profit gained by dramatization as outlined by Miss McCowen in her scholarly paper.

The next paper on the programme was: "Impressions of a Year's Connection with the State School for the Deaf at Delavan," by Mr. E. W. WALKER, Superintendent of that School. Mr. Walker was for years the Institute Con-

ductor for the State Normal School at West Superior, Wisconsin, and is a close observer and student of educational problems; his remarks were therefore anticipated with great interest. In speaking of the relations between the day-school and the State Institution, Mr. Walker stated that there are, and always will be, points of honest and sincere difference because there is much of valid argument on both sides. He said that the same was true regarding the different methods of teaching the deaf. There are many types of deaf persons to be taught, but when one attempts to build up an educational system with only one type in mind, he is apt to conclude that he has solved the entire problem. The day-schools, as now conducted in Wisconsin, are oral schools. Seven-tenths of the classes in the State School are oral classes. Therefore the day-schools and the Institution do not differ very widely on this point, the difference being one of name more than of reality. While the Institution people believe that signs are a natural means of expression for deaf children, the day-school teachers do not; no final good for the children is however dependent upon this agreement. The speaker had been told by those who had visited the day-schools that children there use signs among themselves. The pupils who come from the day-schools to the State School certainly are familiar with signs when they come, but this is not a great thing in the controversy either way. Such adjustments will not be worked out by us as teachers, but in spite of us. Coming directly from public and normal school work, ignorant of the prejudices engendered by an early controversy on methods, he regarded the points of difference between the two wings of the educational system of deaf schools of Wisconsin as very trivial.

There is a common ground on which we may all stand. Each one of us may strive to make the particular part of the system in which he works, or the particular methods

the uses, the very best they can possibly be made. Then we shall be doing more and more for the deaf boys and girls in this State. We shall think less of neutralizing the work of some one else and more and more about the value and excellence of our own work. Let us be constructive rather than destructive. On this platform we may all stand.

Mr. Walker urged the separation of the semi-deaf pupils from the totally deaf in order to give the former auricular training and provide a more rapid means of education. He thought that about 15 per cent. of the pupils could be taught in this way and many restored to schools for the hearing for their instruction.

As many deaf can never acquire speech distinct enough to be of much service to them, he thought lip-reading rather than articulation should be the test for successful oral work.

Speaking of the value of industrial training, Mr. Walker said that a school that gives a literary education to a deaf child, and casts him forth a graduate without industrial anchorage, has been of doubtful service to him.

Mrs. BETTIE B. SPENCER, of the Milwaukee Day-School for the Deaf, followed with an excellent paper on "How to Interest Pupils in Reading." She would begin the development of the reading habit with the very smallest pupils by having them make books preserving all words and sentences learned. In the intermediate grades journals and compositions with pictures to illustrate should be thus kept. In their library reading they should be encouraged to keep a record of the books read and offered prizes for the best reviews during the month. It would be well to choose an author for the month and have the pupils throughout the grades make a study of the author chosen, little children learning names and quotations while the older ones write biographical sketches, quotations, and poems learned and selec-

tions read. By a course of reading thus arranged such interest may be aroused as to give the pupils an appreciation of the thought and even the style of the author.

Mr. C. E. PATZER, of the Milwaukee Normal School, gave a story-telling exercise with six advanced pupils of the Milwaukee Day-School, relating to them the story of the fox and the grapes.

Mr. W. D. PARKER, formerly State Inspector of Schools for the Deaf, but now in charge of the Wisconsin School Exhibit for the World's Fair in St. Louis, offered some suggestions regarding exhibit for the Exposition.

Miss ANNA E. SCHAFER, State Inspector of Schools for the Deaf, was elected Chairman of next year's Round Table meeting.

At the conclusion of the meeting the visitors were tendered a reception in honor of Miss McCowen and Miss Bingham, refreshments being served by teachers and pupils of the Milwaukee Day-School.

PAUL LANGE,

Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Deaf, Wisconsin.

THE SIXTH CONGRESS OF GERMAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.*

THE Sixth Triennial Congress of German Teachers of the Deaf was held last year at Frankfort-on-the-Main, September 28 to October 1, 1903. It was a large gathering owing no doubt to the central location and the high reputation of the Frankfort school. All of the German provinces but Hessen were represented.

Among the many visitors from abroad there were delegates from Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, Luxemburg

*Abridged from the *Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland* for October and November, 1903.

Russia, and America, most of whom were former pupils of Mr. Vatter, the Director of the Frankfort school. America was represented by Mr. John Hitz, Superintendent of the Volta Bureau. The Prussian Ministry of Education sent Dr. Waetzold of Berlin and Dr. Otto of Kassel, while Wurtemberg and Baden were represented by Dr. Wahl and Dr. Waag, respectively.

In the afternoon preceding the opening session, the Prussian and Wurtemberg teachers held separate conventions, at which questions of interest to their respective organizations were discussed.

The meetings of the Congress were held in Alemannia Hall. The address of welcome was given by Mr. VATTER. He said that former Congresses had devoted considerable attention to the solution of questions of organization and methods. He hoped that during the present meeting more attention would be paid to practical instruction, and announced that he would give the visitors an opportunity of witnessing the work in his school.

Mr. WALTHER, Director of the Royal Institution at Berlin and chairman of the Executive Committee of the Congress, responding for the visitors, expressed his satisfaction at the harmony and good feeling now prevailing among the German teachers who had assembled at the workshop of the master of deaf-mute instruction for the purpose of observing his methods. Speaking of new methods, as auricular instruction and writing, he thought that real progress had been made only in the separation of the deaf according to their capabilities. He emphasized the importance of proper training for the work and expressed his gratification that the Frankfort school was to establish a normal department for teachers of the deaf.

Mr. VATTER was elected President of the Congress.

A part of the first morning's session was devoted to an exhibition of Mr. Vatter's methods of instruction with different classes, the exhibition impressed the visitors with his wonderful talent for teaching.

Mr. OTTO DANGER, Director of the Institution at Emden, had been assigned the topic, "The Education of the Deaf for Citizenship." He said that the object of our schools for the deaf was to make self-supporting citizens of them and to train them for the life beyond.

He thought that this was impossible in the short time that they are at school; that it was therefore the duty of the school authorities to aid the deaf after the completion of their studies by looking after their industrial training, by providing for the pastoral care of the adult deaf, and by advising and assisting them in all the walks of life.

In the discussion following, Mr. WENDE, Director of the Liegnitz Institution, said that the deaf have great difficulty in becoming self-supporting; this he attributed to the present overfilled course of instruction.

Mr. ZIEGLER, Director of the Wilhelmsdorf Institution, would have the deaf remain in the family wherever possible.

Mr. SCHUMANN, of Leipzig, thought that the deaf who flocked into the larger cities should be prepared to obtain employment in factories.

Mr. KARTH, of Breslau, regarded it as the duty of the teachers to assist the deaf in securing employment and building homes.

Mr. STREICH, of Gmünd, and Mr. SAWALLISCH, of Elberfeld, related how their respective provinces looked after the interests of the adult deaf.

After some further discussion a resolution was adopted by the Congress concurring in the views expressed by Mr. Danger.

On the second day's session Dr. SCHUMANN, of Leipzig, read a paper on "The Scientific Training of Teachers of the Deaf." Dr. Schumann would raise the standard of teachers by requiring a more extended course of preparation in connection with some university. Besides a

thorough knowledge of phonetics, the organs of speech and their functions, he advocated the study of pedagogics and psychology, the latter in its branches of child study, psychopathology and the psychology of speech. The knowledge of foreign languages (Latin and French, Latin and English, or English and French) was essential for the study of the literature of the profession. He therefore favored the establishment of a government seminary in a university town having a school for the deaf, in which the normal student should spend at least one year of the three years' course of instruction.

Dr. WAAG, of Baden, approved of the suggestion of university training for teachers and hoped that with the growth of the Heidelberg school for the deaf a normal course could be established there. He thought that special attention should be given to phonetics and that medical training would be of value, but did not regard the plan of establishing a national seminary as feasible.

Mr. VATTER agreed with Dr. Schumann in demanding higher training for teachers of the deaf, but insisted that practical training in the schoolroom was the most important thing.

A discussion on the question of foreign languages followed, some contending that the knowledge of one foreign language was sufficient, while others thought that the applicant should be permitted to take his examination in languages within a certain period after taking his examination for a teacher's certificate.

It was decided to have Dr. Schumann's address printed and submitted to the various provincial governments of Germany.

Mr. GUTZMANN, Chairman of the Hill Monument Committee, announced that the sum of 3,000 marks (\$750.00) had been received. It was decided to hold the next Congress at Koenigsberg, Prussia. The present board of officers was re-elected by acclamation.

After passing a vote of thanks to the local committee and all who contributed to the success of the Congress the meeting adjourned *sine die* shortly after one o'clock. At four o'clock the doors of the Frankfort school were thrown open to the visitors. In the schoolrooms there was a display of lessons, drawings, and the handiwork of the pupils, which were greatly admired for their uniform excellence.

In the evening a banquet was given the visitors at the hall, Director Vatter acting as toastmaster.

On the following day about 70 visitors took a trip to the Niederwald and from there by boat down to St. Goar, returning the same evening.

P. LANGE,

Instructor in the Wisconsin School, Delavan, Wisconsin.

PUPILS' PARTIES AND SOCIAL GATHERINGS.

THE social instinct draws people together everywhere. Children's plays resemble the occupations of their elders. They plan and play with an energy that stops only when their bodies demand rest and sleep. They try to imitate almost everything that their elders do. They build houses, make mud pies, teach school, give parties, wash clothes, hold revival services, write letters, quarrel, fight, and kill. The earnestness with which they do this shows that the instincts of childhood do not differ greatly from the instincts of manhood.

Play thus becomes the first period of apprenticeship in the life of the child. How, then, can anyone fail to take an interest in everything the child attempts to do?

A recent inquiry among a number of boys of eight years of age and upward shows that the popular games among them are black-man, crack the whip, boxing, baseball, and football. The reason given was that "it is such fun to

beat somebody." In some cases the brutal nature creeps out, for we often hear such remarks as, "It is such sport to see a fellow tumble over and hurt himself;" "Sometimes you can knock a fellow and black his eye;" "If you watch you can knock the breath out of him."

Certain classes of plays have great effect upon the school work of the children. The range of a child's plays should be wide enough to develop every side of his nature. The kindergarten is a school, even though its whole aim is to direct the play instinct of the child, and therefore it fails in retaining the most essential element of all play freedom.

What the children play is no more important than *how* they play. To gain the most good, plays should succeed each other in the order best adapted to the child's needs. A child may entertain himself day after day with the same game, but he gets little good out of it after a few repetitions.

Children should be taught how to play with the same care that they are taught how to work. If led properly, they learn a thousand things that become a valuable part of their mental and physical being. A child can learn facts in playing "Authors" that will stay by him better than if he learned them from books.

Naturally the child is a despot. He knows that he is to rule, and often thinks he is to rule others rather than himself. Few small children can play long together without quarreling. One of them may yield to the other for a while, but selfishness soon overpowers him and rebellion is the result.

I think we can say that many pupils and adults serve others because they expect a service in return.

All civilized people are governed by social customs. These include the proprieties of the street, the railway car, the church, the club, the parlor, and the dining-room.

Few men who are lacking in good manners are success-

ful in business life. Emerson says that "good manners rule the world."

The usefulness of good manners is often overlooked in the education of children. Mere politeness should not be mistaken for good manners. Politeness is simply the observance of external forms. Good manners are the generous expression of one's self in friendliness to others. Politeness is more or less artificial; good manners are sympathetic. The former is put on when occasion demands it; the latter are so fully a part of the self that they are not easily cast aside.

A selfish child may be polite, but not good-mannered. If we are not careful in teaching the child the forms of society, we may make him merely polite.

Good manners are bred into children; politeness is put on the outside of them. To know how to act in company is but a small part of good manners. It is just as important to know how to act in the home and in the associations of every-day life. Children reared in homes where good manners are present are usually easy and self-possessed in any company. They are not obliged to "put on" when among strangers, and, therefore, are not embarrassed.

Every child needs friendly advice concerning his actions toward others. There may be occasions when he needs to be reminded that he is selfish, thoughtless, disrespectful, or boisterous. There are certainly occasions when he needs to be shown how to be gentle, modest, and self-sacrificing, for this is the basis of good manners.

Every child should be taught the simple matters of form in table etiquette, in entering and leaving the homes of others, in inviting or accepting the company of others, and in welcoming and entertaining guests.

Good manners include grace in sitting, standing, walking, talking, and gesture. These make up part of the social, as well as the physical, education of the child.

Some people go so far as to deny that the deaf have any memory, judgment, or reasoning power. Some of the writers of former centuries even place the deaf on the lowest step of humanity, and consider them little better than animals. Our modern writers have driven all these erroneous notions into oblivion, but still more might be done in this direction. In our days, when psychology is a question of absorbing interest, it becomes our duty to fathom more and more the stages in the mental development of our deaf children, and to encourage researches in this direction.

For the deaf child, no less than for the hearing one, the days of infancy are full of sunny joyfulness. Their games, from the earliest attempts of the baby to handle and pull anything it gets hold of, to the more rational games of more advanced infancy, are full of deep meaning.

Not only does the child by playing develop its physical strength, but it thereby also absorbs something of this world and learns to live in and with this world.

Soon it begins to feel at home, and from the pleasure of observing and imitating animal life there arises a love for nature which otherwise could not be gained.

It is still more important for the deaf child playfully to learn to know human nature, and by imitating it in its different phases to obtain some insight into its deep significance.

In playing the distinct individuality of each child begins to show itself. Here the independence of the one and the dependent nature of the other manifests itself.

The very first games played with other pupils of the institution show to a certain extent the capacities of the deaf child in his relations to human society. Often during the first weeks or months at the institution the first chain binding him to human society is woven. Here he is enabled to show and develop his capacity for governing, for resistance, bearing and forbearing. Here he also

learns for the first time to bend his will to others by obeying the rules of the game. He learns to execute these rules when playing papa, mamma, or teacher, and to observe justice and honesty in the game.

The games and pleasures of the deaf child are of far more importance for its future development than is generally imagined.

The institution is the home for the deaf child nine months in the year, and we should take as much interest in trying to have him appear well in society as though he were in our own family. The entertainments we give for the children should be conducted as though we were entertaining our own friends, or as though the children in our family were entertaining their little friends. The older children should be so educated in the forms of good society that they could go out into the world and enter society without any embarrassment. Of course, in order to train them in this way, we have to contain all this in ourselves.

Innocent games and dancing are a great resource for the deaf, and they should be encouraged to become expert in these.

“ Cherish this as sacred wit :
‘ Laugh a little bit.’
Keep it with you, sample it ;
‘ Laugh a little bit.’
Little ills will sure betide you,
Fortune may not sit beside you,
Men may mock and fame deride you,
But you’ll mind them not a whit
If you laugh a little bit.”

PEARL COLE,
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MISTAKES OF MINE.

A NOTED free-thinker numbered among his popular lectures one which he called "Mistakes of Moses." It is questioned by many able intellects whether the lecturer was not more mistaken than Moses was ; but there is no mistake about these Mistakes of Mine. It is not the intention to give a topical review of all my mistakes, space being limited, but a few choice selections may not be without instructive value, for the same mistakes are made now that were made twenty-five years ago. Possibly the gentle (or merely tolerant) reader will inquire why such ancient history should be selected, why not something of more recent date? The reason is not hard to give : Distance lends enchantment to the view when we are gazing upon scenery ; it lends disenchantment when we are viewing our blunders. Blunders of yesterday cannot be considered with unprejudiced eye by the blunderer. Possibly others can and do treat of them with impartiality, but if the performer is to be the critic himself, it is better that he select events of a somewhat remote date. He can then discuss his mistakes as if they were the misdeeds of another man—or woman ; for it will be conceded (by men) that even women sometimes make mistakes.

The year I began teaching all the new pupils in that institution were separated into classes according to their intelligence. There was one collection of incompetents resulting from this segregation that certainly gave but little promise of accomplishing anything in the way of intellectual effort. It was supposed at that time that the proper place for a new teacher was in charge of just such a class, "where he could do no harm." I think this was a mistake, but as it was none of mine I will not dwell on it. Among these pupils given into my charge

was one, Walter S., who had been in school a year or so already and he was installed as interpreter. Walter was greatly elated at this distinction, and before the morning was over he voluntarily extended his sphere of usefulness so as to include a kindly oversight of my own composition and spelling, pointing out where, in his opinion, improvement was possible and desirable. I was silly enough to resent his patronage and reduced him to the ranks forthwith. This tender solicitude of a teacher for his dignity is likely to act as a check on his usefulness. The more he thinks of it, the less he thinks of his class.

Among my early convictions as a teacher was the necessity of exacting instant and unquestioning obedience. If I told my pupils a thing they were to swallow it and attempt to assimilate it. Theirs not to reason why; theirs but to do, or I got ruffled at once. Clifford D. was a daily source of annoyance to me by his extreme disinclination to perform certain tasks or to submit to certain simple forms of punishment. Among my early mistakes was the theory that it was a wholesome discipline to compel a pupil to do distasteful work, that is, work which was distasteful to the one to whom it was given. I do not remember just now what it was that Clifford objected to most strenuously, but we will say that he desired earnestly to write his daily lesson on the wall-slates, while I, in conformity with my mistaken notions, refused to permit that and insisted that he do as the other pupils did, write on his small slate. Such an arbitrary and unreasonable course can only result in distaste for all school work and dislike for the teacher, unless the pupil has been reduced to the state of an automaton. "Education" comes from a Latin word meaning "to lead out." The process just referred to bears no resemblance to leading, surely.

Clifford was given to rubbing the third finger of his left hand in his right hand, meanwhile gazing at me

sidewise and nodding his head in a deprecatory way. One day, for some misdemeanor or neglect of my directions, I had told him to go and stand by my desk. I then passed on around the room, correcting slates, until I had completed the circuit, when I found Clifford standing with reluctant feet where I had left him. I caught him by the shoulder and propelled him rapidly toward my desk, letting go of him after I had got him well started. To my amazement and terror he toppled over like a ten-pin and his head struck a corner of the desk which cut a gash just above his forehead. The blood streamed over his face and I felt more like a detected murderer than I ever felt before or have since. The nurse found that the cut was easily closed with some court-plaster, and my concern respecting the illustrations in the morning papers abated somewhat. I had tried hard to make Clifford understand that it was all an accident, but he evidently feared that it was to be a regular part of the daily programme, for next morning he was missing from his place. I sent John W. to look for him and presently he was dragged in, his cries of terror making me as miserable as his fear of me made him. I quieted him and after that he had no reason to feel any apprehension as to my treatment of him. In fact, he became my devoted attendant, following me about the playground, rubbing his third finger, nodding his head vigorously, and assuring me that he was "good," until the other boys good-humoredly called him my monkey.

Prominent among my pupils, both by reason of their size and their stupidity, were Martha and John F. One day I made a correction on John's slate that did not meet with his approval. He studied the matter for a moment and then expressed to the class his conviction that I was a lineal descendant of Ananias, though he saw fit to put it more plainly. I had all of the new teacher's antipathy for this idiosyncrasy of deaf children, so I

descended on John and smote him hip and thigh. About the second smite my hand was arrested and my attention diverted by a roar from Martha; she was headed my way and was making good time. I really do not know what I should have done if she had carried out her original purpose, which was manifestly to lay violent hands on me, but when she saw that I had dropped all thought of John, she subsided. Had she come on, I think I should have run, dignity or no dignity.

Melville C. was a bullet-headed young scapegrace whose chief delight was to carry on a monologue in signs respecting the awful depravity and general unworthiness of Clifford. All this would be done with angelic countenance and without looking at the object of his remarks at all, but said object was seated where he could not avoid seeing Melville's soliloquy, and the spectacle would excite him to such a pitch that he would fairly dance and howl with rage. It was some time before I found out what was the matter, but when I did I learned along with it that a very seraphic countenance may sometimes conceal a good deal of mischief.

Terence O. was a squint-eyed little Irish lad who had a habit of stamping his foot, shaking his head angrily, and uttering a kind of snarl not unlike that of a savage cur. For a good while I had a suspicion that these demonstrations were directed at me and were intended to express Terence's opinion of me. I remember remonstrating with him sharply, but I do not remember that I ever punished him in any way and I hope I did not, for I afterward found out that the poor fellow was simply vexed with his defective eyes. His efforts to write, and possibly the crayon-dust, caused his eyes to run and irritated the lids so that he was in constant distress. Another pupil of this strangely assorted class was a studious and to my mind promising girl, whose clear and graceful manual spelling and neat handwriting were

a source of delight and pride to me. Of all the pupils in that first class of mine she is the only one that I can recall as having given any evidence of development intellectually, and yet she was afterward sent to the insane asylum. From this it may be judged what the rest of the class were, and I submit that it was hardly fair to children, thus doubly handicapped already, to add to their afflictions a teacher without experience. Still, as I say, that was not my mistake; I would quite willingly have taken charge of a brighter class, and indeed I was thus "promoted" the following year.

Since that time many classes have come to me, and I can recall plenty of other "mistakes" made from time to time. I remember one just now that perhaps is as good as any other to close with: I had had a set of wooden measures made in the carpenter shop in cubical form to facilitate measurement and comparison—a bushel, a peck, and a quart measure, also a cubic foot. One day I gave the class a question involving comparison of the bushel and the cubic foot. I had already marked off spaces, in chalk, on the sides of the cubes, showing how a bushel equals about five-fourths of a cubic foot; and I had impressed on them, as I thought distinctly, that as a matter of convenience they could simply take four-fifths of any number of cubic feet as representing the number of bushels the space would contain, or that five-fourths of a given number of bushels would give, approximately, the number of cubic feet. The question was, "How many bushels would this room contain?" They already knew the dimensions of the room. I hastily worked out the problem and then passed around glancing at their work. "Mistake," "mistake," "mistake."

There was only one pupil whose answer agreed with mine. I was discouraged. I had made the thing so clear, as it seemed to me, that the only explanation of their unsatisfactory showing was indifference, lack of

attention, general unfitness for anything involving brain-work. To add to my displeasure, I detected one lad tracing his work to "copy" from the boy whose answer agreed with mine. This was the last straw. I secured the attention of the class and turned on the oratory. What was the use of the State paying out money for the education of such indifferent pupils? What was the use of the teacher spending time and energy in the preparation and elucidation of problems if the pupils made no exertion themselves to profit by it? There were the boxes right before their eyes; what possible excuse could there be for making an error? Did they expect to have a clerk accompany them through life to do all such work for them?

Meanwhile one of the lads had been pegging away at the example, using the exact dimensions of a bushel (2,150.42 cubic inches); the result that he got about the same answer as the one that had been scorned by me, and this time he felt more certain of his method. I condescended to look over his paper; it had every appearance of being correct. Then I looked at the boxes. I had got them mixed! The one boy whom I had praised for his accuracy and carefulness—that boy and I were in a hopeless minority; we also enjoyed the distinction of being the only ones in the class who had made a mistake. It was really rather embarrassing. I almost repented of some things I had just been proclaiming with much earnestness. They seemed to take on a most obnoxiously personal tinge. What further remarks I made were of a less positive and fervid nature.

But the class took the matter calmly. As a rule the deaf child accepts the philosophy of the old lady who whipped her grandchild unjustly, and on discovering her error said, "Well, no matter. You never get a lick amiss. If you don't deserve it now, there are plenty of times when you do and escape."

I have in various ways repeated this last-mentioned mistake of mine so often that I begin to despair of reform, but as I am the chief sufferer each time it is repeated, it is perhaps a more pardonable variety of error than some of the others.

POMPANO.

THE TRAINING OF A CONGENITALLY DEAF-BLIND CHILD.

[Mr. William Wade sends us an extract from a letter to him, written by the teacher of a congenitally deaf child who became blind in early infancy. It was not written with any thought of its appearing in print, but it supplements so well Mrs. Barrett's article in the present number of the *Annals* that the consent of the writer to its publication has been obtained, and she has also been persuaded to preface it with a brief sketch of the child's previous history. The extract from the letter begins with the words, " 'Ah yes!' you will say, 'I know all about it; you kept your pupil all summer.' "—E. A. F.]

Maud Rainey Scott was placed in my charge November 5, 1902. She was then seven years old and had been under instruction two years, although there had been a number of serious interruptions to her work during that time.

She was born deaf and lost her sight soon after birth. She has since sustained the loss of both eyes.

When her first teacher, Miss Janie Watkins, took charge of her, she was unable to walk or even stand alone, and had hardly known a well day since her birth. Her habits were those of a baby, and her mental development barely equal to that of a normal child six months old. She had lain in a cradle for nearly six years, sleeping by day and eating and wildly rocking herself through the night.

She had been fed almost entirely on milk, as she refused everything else. Food and drink were her only wants and she obtained the object of her desire by crying, screaming, and kicking.

She played almost constantly with her fingers but took no notice of any object that might be placed in her hands or lap. In general she was about as responsive as a newborn babe.

After two years of faithful, earnest, loving work as Maud's teacher, Miss Watkins resigned her position to prepare herself for foreign missionary work. It was a hard trial for the little one who had grown so attached to her.

Maud was then temporarily placed in charge of another teacher who cared for her until I took her, November 5, 1902.

During those two years she had learned to walk, though with halting steps; she could feed herself, though not neatly, if the food were pushed on her spoon; she could take off her clothes when unfastened, pick them up and put them in a chair, but needed considerable urging; she could string her kindergarten beads by herself, though slowly; she used a number of words and sentences but spelled nothing independently.

She had improved in many ways and had daily given evidences of mental development which, though clear to watchful eyes, can scarcely be set down in black and white.

Since that time her progress has been steady and sure, though not rapid. She walks almost like a normal child and can go long distances without undue fatigue; she feeds herself entirely without assistance after the food is cut and put on her plate, and is very neat about it; she undresses herself and picks up her clothes easily and quickly; she does several kindergarten exercises easily and well; she is using a number of words but has only three which are strictly speaking her own. I do not regard a word as hers until she uses it of her own accord, wholly independent of me, and to gain a desired end. *Water, food,* and *bed* she uses in this way.

She has a good, well-balanced mind, and a very strong

will, but is lazy and inert. In temperament she is highly nervous and sensitive; in disposition, sweet and affectionate. Her temper is naturally very quick, but her old passionate outbreaks are of comparatively rare occurrence now.

Although so little of her progress can be shown to the world, we feel that much has been done; that the foundations have been laid, and that good is sure to follow if we build carefully and are not too impatient for results that will show.

"Ah, yes!" you will say, "I know all about it; you kept your pupil all summer." Yes, I did! and I speak almost defiantly when I say I know my winter's work is not so hard as it would have been if I had not kept her. Maud is so strong-willed and so lazy that she needed and still needs to feel almost constantly a firm though gentle pressure.

There was so much foundation work to be done with Maud. It was indeed an herculean task which Miss Watkins undertook when she took this child to train and teach who had lain in her cradle for six long years and exerted only her *will*! There was so much to be done! I wonder she knew where to begin.

I decided soon after taking her that the first end to be sought was self-control. She had so little; she flew into such terrible passions at the slightest opposition, beating her head on the floor, on the iron bed, with her hands or anything she could lay hands on. She stubbornly resisted everything I did for her and with her for a time. In time she learned that she must yield to me. But she admitted no other authority. Then she learned to let others do for her when she felt it was sanctioned by my authority. But obedience was only a means to the desired end. Then occasionally would come a time when she *made herself* do

the things she ought, often slapping her own hands to help matters along. The habit grows stronger daily. Sometimes when crossed she will burst out into a passionate fit of weeping in the old way, then as suddenly stop, sit perfectly still with tightly clasped hands, then give herself a vigorous shake—mental, moral, and physical—begin to rock vigorously, scolding herself meanwhile, then stop and rock quietly with a happy smile on her face, the smile born of the “triumph of principles.”

One morning at table her accustomed dry toast, of which she is very fond, was missing. Not wishing to call attention to the matter I offered her “Sally Lunn,” which she does not like a “little bit.” She laid it down and nudged me, giving me to understand that she did not want that. I gave it to her again. She held it in a disappointed way, then raised her fingers to my lips in a coaxing way. I gently put her hand down again. She sat irresolute a minute, then the great tears welled up into her eyes and rolled down over her cheeks. She made no sound but looked as if her poor little heart would break. To have to eat “Sally Lunn” when she had expected toast, and not to have me understand how hard it was, oh, it was more than she could bear! Poor little one! I drew her out of her chair, put my arms around her and made her understand that I did know how hard it was but wished her to eat it. She quickly choked back the tears, slipped back into her chair of her own accord, took up that “Sally Lunn” and ate it as if she liked it, smiling pleasantly meanwhile. Who of us could do better than that? Give up our own way and do it so gently and sweetly that no one would know we were giving up.

These things mean so much to me, so much more than a few words spelled on the fingers. Not that I do not appreciate the value of the latter. But first let us have a good broad foundation. Let us have a sound physical being. Let us have obedience and self-control, which is only obedience in a higher form.

I have been working on an exercise with Maud for one year. Yesterday she tried to do it herself. To-day she did it herself. The place was hardly big enough to hold me after that.

You are appreciative, but not even you have any conception what it means to teach a lazy and congenitally deaf-blind child. Did I not know I could overcome to a large extent that innate and acquired laziness I should almost despair.

MINNIE E. MORRIS,

*Teacher of the Deaf-Blind in the Mississippi Institution,
Jackson, Mississippi.*

WHY METHODS FAIL.*

To assert the failure of any one method of educating the deaf, whether manual or oral, is a very simple feat, and has become almost a recognized and necessary formula of words in the mouths of the advocates of either method. As the results of either method cannot be exactly represented in statistics, it is quite as easy to prove the assertion as to make it, no matter against which method the charge is made. There can be no doubt that we find what we look for, and if we seek to demonstrate the failure of any method there is no dearth of facts and figures for our purpose. But the assertions of wholesale failure given as the results of such investigation exhibit so much bias on the part of many of those who make them that they are often altogether unreliable.

Wholesale condemnation of any method does not indicate any adequately close reasoning or observation. Neither method is wholly incapable of producing creditable results, for there are varying degrees of intelligence and condition among deaf children, some of which permit of excellent oral work, while others are most helped by

* From *The Teacher of the Deaf* for January, 1904.

manual methods. The crux of the whole matter is how to decide the method most suitable to each case. Both methods and their modifications have been designed to cultivate mental intelligence, and there is nothing antagonistic to such development in either of them. In fact this is the purpose of their existence, for which their respective advocates continue them.

Each school of thought embraces an extreme element which cannot, or will not, believe that any good can accrue from the methods of the other; and each can bring forward such an array of facts and arguments as demonstrate conclusively, at least to themselves, their contentions. But, it must be said, the demonstration is not always so convincing to moderate persons, who insist on the principle, "The best for the child."

Blind opposition to the merits of either the oral or the manual method is sure to err, and the error would not much matter were it not that the penalty must be exacted by some sacrifice of benefit which should rightly belong to the child. Each method has its own proper field of service; and so long as it remains impossible to fit the child to the method so long will each be necessary. To exclude either the one or the other would be to weaken the already comparatively slender means we have of awakening and training the intelligence of the deaf, to cut off one of the two hands we possess for raising our pupils to intellectual independence—an act of educational folly, of intellectual murder to some of those whom it is the prime duty of our schools to nurture and develop. The unreasonable opposition of the one element to the tenets and work of the other exhibits to the world an unfortunate disagreement of "doctors," and when these fall out who shall decide? This disagreement is as regrettable as it is unreasonable, and does not do anything of a constructive nature to advance the education of the deaf.

Why do methods fail? Each child has mental and

physical characteristics peculiar to himself, and these present problems which claim to be decided upon their merits, and not by any ready made solution of method or procedure, whether oral or otherwise. Consequently a pre-essential to success of any method is its correct application. But what constitutes success? The most complete intellectual development of which the faculties of the child are capable within the limits of his school period—not the mere ability to speak, to spell on the fingers a few mechanical sentences, or to sign a prayer or incident. Success is achieved when the child acquires the habit of thought and is competent to express his thoughts either by speech or finger spelling, both reducible to writing; when he becomes an intelligible being to his fellows, and the barriers of his isolation from them are done away. And the actual degree of success must be largely dependent upon the mental, physical, and moral quality of the pupil, so that the term is always a relative one; and what is accounted a good result in one case may be but a meagre one in another.

Given a suitable selection as to the method, that is, when the natural faculties of the child appear likely to respond best to the method adopted for his instruction, it is yet possible to fail. And why? Because those responsible for carrying out the principles and details of the method selected may not adequately understand these essential points, and thus while the child is instructed he may not be educated. He may be taught in dead words without such words possessing the key to his mind. Such failures can be produced extensively as the result, or want of result, of any method, and it is generally these cases which are brought forward to uphold the contentions of the extremists of both parties. But they do not necessarily prove the failure of the method itself so much as that of the exponents of the method. It is necessary for the general well-being of the deaf that this distinction

should be recognized. It pleads most eloquently for the importance of studying the peculiar educational necessities of the deaf by those who undertake the responsible duty of supplying these needs. It is as necessary for the success of the manual method as for that of the oral that the child be taught intelligently and skilfully. Shallow and unworthy ambitions, readily overtaken, often satisfy instructors, but they never succeed. Mediocrity is not meritorious, yet it contents many. Entertainment is not education, for to succeed the inner faculties of mind must be reached and drawn out. Educational work among hearing children shows corresponding failures to those pointed out in that for the deaf, and the failures are mainly due to the same causes, but are not outwardly so apparent in their case.

And even if these two conditions—suitable selection of methods, and skilled teaching—be secured, there still remains the possibility of failure. We have often realized lamentable failure at this point. We have seen it in the cases of our brightest oral pupils, and we have grieved over it in those of our best equipped manually taught children. It is the failure of parents to assist the deaf child in the pursuit of knowledge after he leaves school. Parents, in our experience, rarely talk to their children; they often cannot spell on their fingers, hence speech ceases, finger spelling ends, and language deteriorates. The child is driven back upon such signs as those about him understand. If he happen to have some knowledge of signing he may the more quickly adapt himself to his conditions, but the actual failure, educationally speaking, is equal and similar. The passage from finger spelling to signs is not naturally so striking or marked as that from speech to signs, but to the impartial mind the failure, so far as thought expression by language is concerned, is equally complete.

At sixteen years of age the deaf child is only really

commencing his education, and to expect him to advance, or even hold his own, educationally, in a world wherein he is practically isolated, so far as interchange of language is concerned, is unreasonable and impossible of realization. What is a success at sixteen, becomes mediocrity or worse at twenty-six, and there is much truth in the assertions of failure, although there is little wisdom or discernment generally shown in the allocation of the responsibility for such failure. There is no element of truth or justice in either side making a free gift of the monopoly of failure to the other.

It is a sorry thought that the finishing touches to the work of our schools depend upon parents and others who have not the knowledge, and who generally take no steps to acquire it, of communicating in English with their offspring. They depute their responsibilities to the schools, and do not often trouble themselves really to understand their children. In those places wherein an adult society exists the parental responsibility is transferred to the missionary when the child leaves school, and many of these workers can give ample and distressing evidence of the supineness and culpable neglect shown by parents. That extreme section which casts the onus of failure upon the missionaries does not look closely enough into the matter. The missionaries have a very difficult work to carry on, and as compared with the parents they can only associate with the deaf a very few hours in the week. Their powers of custody over them are very limited, and it is unreasonable for them to be blamed for the intellectual and educational failure of the deaf. They have to adapt themselves to the conditions they find, and cannot, like teachers, who have the children with them night and day in institutions, make their conditions largely as they would have them. And if a sign method of intercourse obtain under the parental roof—and one not composed of intelligent signs at that—what wonder is it that the deaf after six-

teen do not speak or spell on the fingers? The hearing world does not generally understand how to communicate with the deaf. It is a peculiar fact that even though a child be a good speech-reader the parents rarely speak to him. *Prima facie*, speech should be the means of communication in such a case, because the parents can speak, but with a strange contrariety they fly to things they know not of, and use signs often quite unintelligible. Comparatively very few parents of deaf children can spell on the hands, and so, with the loss of speech and finger spelling, the foundation of language laid at school weakens and crumbles away until only a disconnected word here and there remains. And these fragmentary remains the opponents of the method by which the child was taught seize upon and cast about as proving the utter failure of that method.

This constant bandying about of wholesale charges of failure has endured far too long. There is no body of workers, however devoted, which is proof against them. Oral teachers, manual teachers, and missionaries, are all in turn assailed, and generally unjustly. The oral method and the finger-spelling method are not wrong; and where they fail it is because of their conditions. We have referred to three causes, any one or more of which is sufficient to reduce the best hopes of any method to poverty. These are:

Wrong selection of method.

Unskilled teaching.

Uneducational and unintelligent environment after school age.

These causes affect both methods, and if only those who were righteous were to cast stones there would be more workers available to remove the conditions which predispose to failure. Whatever may be advanced by the extremists of either side both methods are required, and will remain until it be possible to conform the natural in-

telligence of all children to a set standard. Constant strife does nothing to assist work, but rather tends towards mediocrity, for each party is so well content with itself and so unwilling to learn from the other that progress is jeopardized.

There is nothing inherent in either method naturally detrimental to intellectual development, any more than there is in bread and meat any inevitable danger to health. It is not the method, it is not the bread and meat, which constitute the harm. It is the misapplication, the inefficient carrying out of the processes necessary to assimilation, which incur the penalties of mental and bodily failure. And to condemn wholesale the one thing or the other shows surface thinking and incomplete reasoning, which are incompatible with improvement.

Truth rarely rests entirely with extremists at either end, but it is found at some point between the two. Facts prove anything according to the color of the glasses through which they are viewed, and statistics are proverbially elastic. It is obviously quite as simple to demonstrate the failure of any method as to prove its success. But facts and figures relating to education do not necessarily condemn any method. The moral of them generally tends in another direction, and suggests that methods should be given a real chance, and be chosen and worked according to the indications and requirements of the pupil.

Those well-meaning friends of the deaf whose views are as divergent as the east from the west, and who respectively believe that no good thing can come out of oralism or of manualism, lose sight of the child in their exaggerated ideas of method. They forget the widely varying characteristics, both mentally and physically, of deaf children, and thus do not appear to know clearly what stands for success; they do not probe deeply enough into the operating causes of the failures they deplore. They condemn *in toto* the method they do not favor, and thereby defeat their well intentioned purposes.

If preconceived prejudices of all kinds could be ignored, if the welfare of the whole number of the deaf could be temperately considered and not decided from the cases of a few of one quality or another, it would be clearly seen that *per cent.* applications of either system are impossible, and that there is ample need for both in order that the latent possibilities of each individual child may be fully discovered and expanded. The method chosen must be faithfully worked, and for final success in the world of life and work the after-school conditions of the pupil be made conducive to his continued development.

CONGENITAL DEAFNESS IN ANIMALS.*

CONGENITAL deafness in animals has been known among breeders for a long time, chiefly among those who raise dogs or cats of pure breed. They have observed that this anomaly is generally accompanied by a defect in the pigmentation of the eye and skin.† But it was not until 1896 that an autopsy, scientifically conducted, of a dog affected with these various anomalies of development proved that they were connected with malformation of the labyrinth. The question moreover has been elucidated only since the labors of Alexander and Kreidl (Alexander and Kreidl, *Anatomische physiologische Untersuchungen an Tanzmäusen*, in *Fflüggers Arch.* 1901 and 1902, and Alexander, *Zur vergleichenden pathologischen Anatomie des Gehörorgans*, in *Arch. f. Ohrenheilk.*, 1900). These authors saw immediately the analogy which might exist between congenital deafness in man and congenital deafness in animals. They studied the latter not only in cats,

* Translated from *Archives Internationales de Laryngologie, d'Otologie et de Rhinologie*, Vol. xvi, No. 6, 1903.

† See the *Annals*, xxix, 160-162; xxxvi, 170.

where it is frequent, but also in a Japanese variety of mice, which has become quite an extended article of commerce and in which malformations of the labyrinth constitute to a certain degree a characteristic of the race. Assuming that the internal ear was atrophied, it was necessary first of all to know what was the state of the audition and the sense of equilibrium.

The cats examined by Alexander presented a very marked albinism in their fur and had blue or yellow eyes. Their general appearance otherwise was identical with that of normal cats. With respect to audition the animal did not respond to any stimulation of sound; this phenomenon became striking when another subject with normal hearing was placed near it. With respect to the sense of equilibrium a manifest hesitation to jump, especially in a vertical direction, was noted. Alexander also observed that the direction of the jump and the force of the spring were often defective, even for quite near distances. The eye, notwithstanding its lack of pigmentation, presented no other anomaly, notably no hypermetropia. There were no anomalies in the other sense organs.

Alexander's experiments on the Japanese dancing mice were made conjointly with Professor Kreidl. These mice were a little smaller than ordinary mice. They were of a grayish color, with white and brown spots. Their bodily and muscular development left nothing to be desired. Except with respect to the internal ear their physiological functions seem to be perfect. The audition is certainly *nil*; they do not respond to the most intense sounds. The sense of equilibrium is evidently affected; when they try to run away it is with zigzag movements. The imprints they make upon paper covered with lampblack are absolutely characteristic. Finally, if they are placed in a rapidly revolving cage for a time, when they are taken out they seem to feel no vertigo.

The lesions of the labyrinth observed in the cats affected with congenital deafness were as follows:

1. In the sacculus ductus reuniens the cœcum vestibulare, the ductus cochlearis, and the cœcum cupulare have their parietes drawn near together.

2. Destruction or profound degeneration of the tips of the nerves on the level of the macula sacculi and the papilla basilaris cochleæ.

3. Entire absence of pigment in the lower half of the labyrinth.

4. Smallness (atrophy?) of the spiral ganglion.

5. Smallness (atrophy?) of the cochlear nerve.

The middle and external ear appeared perfectly healthy.

The lesions of the labyrinth in the *mice* presented the following phenomena :

1. Destruction of the macula sacculi.

2. Destruction of the papilla basilaris cochleæ with irradiation of the histological alterations in the vicinity.

3. Smallness of the branches and ramuscles of the upper and middle division of the eighth pair. The fibres of the nerves are perceptibly less abundant and many of their sheaths are empty.

4. Enormous atrophy of the lower division of the auditory nerve.

5. Smallness of the two vestibular ganglions.

6. Very marked atrophy of the spiral ganglion.

It is noteworthy that with the cats as well as the mice the semi-circular canals presented a normal appearance from the histological as well as the macroscopic point of view.

As for heredity the Japanese dancing mice form a veritable race which is normally, so to speak, deprived of hearing. As to the cats the facts are not so clear. With them heredity of auditory malformation is not constant. Thus a congenitally deaf Angora cat, although she was always impregnated by the same male, a normal animal, sometimes produced normal offspring and sometimes offspring deaf like herself. It would certainly be interest-

ing to breed systematically from males and females affected with the same auditory anomalies, during a sufficiently great number of generations. In that case we might perhaps obtain a race similar, from the point of view of audition, to the race of dancing mice.

C. CHAUVEAU,

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d'Otologie et de Rhinologie, Paris, France.*

"DEAFNESS AND CHEERFULNESS."

[Readers of the *Annals* who remember Mrs. Stafford's review (published in the *Annals*, vol. xlvii, pp. 285-292) of the Rev. A. W. Jackson's "Deafness and Cheerfulness" will be interested to read this letter from Mr. Jackson. It was not written with any expectation of its reaching the press, but in response to a request from the editor of the *Annals* Mr. Jackson has consented to its publication.

The two points on which Mrs. Stafford dissented from Mr. Jackson were the business relations of the deaf and their success in speech-reading. On the first point she took a more cheerful view than he; on the second a less cheerful one. The difference between them on the first point is chiefly due to the fact that Mr. Jackson had in mind persons who become deaf late in life, while Mrs. Stafford referred to those who have been educated in schools for the deaf. No doubt it is, as Mr. Jackson says, very difficult for a man becoming deaf in adult life to hold his place, especially if his business or profession is one that brings him much in contact with other men, and it is still more difficult for him to change the nature of his employment. On the whole, those overtaken by deafness in later years, notwithstanding the superior advantages they enjoy in the acquisitions they have made through the hearing, not only feel their deprivation more keenly, but actually meet with greater difficulty in adapting themselves to their environment than those deaf from birth or childhood. All the more, then, have they a claim upon our sympathy, and the more do they deserve our respect and admiration when, like Mr. Jackson, they face their misfortune with dignity and courage, and from their own experience reach out a helping hand to their fellow sufferers. —E. A. F.]

CONCORD, MASS., *November 27, 1903.*

MAY M. STAFFORD.

DEAR LADY: Quite a long time ago there came to me through the mail a copy of *American Annals of the Deaf*, containing

art, and music classes will demonstrate their ability for self-support, and the academic classes will prove their capacity for knowledge. The public will thus be convinced that these children are entitled to an education equally with other children, and are in nowise objects of charity.

Teachers from public schools will be at liberty to investigate the various methods employed by instructors of the deaf and of the blind. The public schools may profit by the introduction of some of these.

The deaf and the blind may never again have educational privileges such as this Exposition affords. The knowledge and experience gained by a few weeks' stay will be of more benefit than months of schooling.

Each school should perform its part in this united effort and show not only to the people of their own State, but to the people of every State and nation, what they have contributed to this cause, and what they have accomplished for the interests of their State.

Every State will take pride in the setting forth of the just claims to excellence of its institutions, thus reflecting credit upon the State and its administration. What a State does for its deaf and its blind is an index to the character of its population, its wealth, and its resources.

The space originally intended for the Model Schools for the deaf and for the blind has been reduced in order to meet the demands of foreign governments. Owing to this reduction the plans of the exhibit have been somewhat altered.

Unless otherwise specified, space for objective exhibits will be allotted by units, although a limited amount of floor space will be available. A unit includes a leaf-cabinet, a top, and a base. The base may have either a table or a showcase. The cost of the unit, including the partition and flooring which it covers, and seven months of janitor service, will not exceed \$25. The estimates upon which this price is based, and the name of the contractor, with whom exhibitors will deal directly, will be furnished each exhibitor when space is assigned.

The leaf-cabinet and base are the property of the school exhibiting, and may be returned at the close of the Expositi-

tion, and can then be set up in the school as a permanent exhibit. The respective State commissions will presumably be responsible for the shipment, care, and return of the goods.

A leaf cabinet contains sixteen swinging frames, one of which is the cover of the case. Each frame holds two cards twenty-two inches wide and twenty eight inches high. An extra card is placed in the back of the cabinet, making in all thirty-three cards, the outer one being protected by glass. Exhibits must be mounted on one side only of the cards, two of them being placed back to back in each swinging frame. This cabinet contains the equivalent of one hundred and forty-two square feet of wall space, and has the advantage of being on the "eye line." Experience at former expositions proves this to be much more satisfactory than tracing exhibits along an extended surface.

The fifteen swinging frames can be shipped to exhibitors, by whom they may be filled and returned to be placed in the cabinet. Three extra cards must also be prepared and sent with the frames, one of which is to be placed in the back of the cabinet and two in the cover. The base containing a table, or show case and shelving, can easily be taken apart and returned with the cabinet to the exhibitor.

Photographs must be mounted directly on the cards. Small photographs should be eight by ten inches, four of which can be easily placed on a card, or six if crowded. Two photographs, eleven by fourteen, can be displayed on a card, or one photograph of a larger size. Remember in mounting photographs that the cards, when in the cabinet, have the twenty-eight-inch dimension vertical. Mount photographs on one side of the card only, and place two of them back to back in each swinging frame. Statistics should be carefully selected and charted, either by engrossing or printing, on one side of the card. In arranging statistics in the cabinet, have them face the photographs to which they refer.

Application blanks will be furnished upon request; also shipping labels. Exhibits should be shipped before March 15, 1904. Two shipping labels must be placed upon each package to insure its safe delivery. Without the use of the official labels it is not certain that goods will be delivered on the proper space.

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SUGGESTIVE OUTLINE FOR A SCHOOL EXHIBIT.

LIVING EXHIBIT.

1. Send one or two classes, with teachers and supervisors, to take part in the living exhibit.
2. Send one or two pupils, without teachers or supervisors, to perform some particular work in music, art, manual training, etc. Special arrangement must be made by correspondence.
3. Make a design, with the name of the State and school, to be placed above the room.

OBJECTIVE EXHIBIT.

FLOOR SPACE.

4. If possible, secure a model of grounds and buildings, made in papier maché, staff, or wood, reproducing the landscape effects when possible. Place this on a table.
5. Make models of one or more individual buildings in papier maché, staff, or wood. This model should be detachable, so as to be taken apart, exposing the architectural arrangement.
6. Large cases or cabinets may be filled with work from the industrial shops. There will be room only for a few of these. Make tables, chairs, sideboards, etc., for the dining-room exhibit.
7. Phonographs giving musical performances of the blind, or lessons in speech to the deaf.

UNITS.

8. A large photograph, painting, poster, or chart can be placed above the cabinet. It will be well to have this framed.
9. Samples of woodwork, weaving, sewing, etc., can also be displayed above the cabinet.

LEAF CABINET.

10. The outer card or cover of the cabinet should contain a striking photograph, a table of contents, or the name of the State and the school, in order to induce visitors to examine the contents.
11. The remaining thirty-two cards may be filled as follows: If possible fill the entire cabinet, at least part of it, with a concise study of some method employed in the school. For example, a series of photographs, charts, tables, and statistics showing the entire method of teaching speech to the deaf; likewise illustrate the method of teaching language, geography, music, etc.
12. Photographs of children studying, reciting, working, playing, eating, sleeping, etc., showing their daily life, accompanied with brief and interesting information.

13. Photographs of classes in operation, with charts and explanations. Illustrate the methods briefly and show the different grades.

14. Illustrate the work done in art, music, and the industrial shops. When possible, show samples of work.

15. Studies of individual, typical, and exceptional pupils. Photographs showing their condition on entrance, and later changes, accompanied by samples of work and a short biographical sketch, well illustrated. Distinguish between exceptional and typical pupils, and label accordingly.

16. Illustrate the management of the institution by photographs of the different departments, such as office, farm, culinary department, etc. Photographs of officers at their duties. Accompany this by statistics, charts, and general information.

17. Statistics and general information relating to the deaf and the blind.

18. Photographs of grounds and buildings and architectural drawings, not to exceed twenty-two by twenty-eight inches when exhibited in the cabinet.

TABLE.

19. The back part of the table beneath the cabinet may be used as a book shelf. Books and portfolios may be opened and examined on the front part of the table.

SHOW-CASE.

20. The back part of the show-case will hold articles not to exceed ten inches in height and six inches in thickness. The front part of the show-case is four inches deep. Industrial work of all kinds may be displayed here.

PORTFOLIO SHELF.

21. Large portfolios may be placed on this shelf, containing any of the studies outlined above.

22. Portfolios may also contain samples of sewing, weaving, darning, etc. Arrange so as to show each step in the process of education leading to the production of a fine piece of work. Illustrate by photographs of pupils at work, also show the difference in the age of the pupils in the different grades.

23. Likewise, show the progress of some particular pupil.

24. Portfolios may contain application blanks and other forms.

25. Portfolios showing methods of accounting, conducting the business, and managing the school, will be of interest.

BOOK SHELVES.

26. The lower shelves may be filled with reports, publications, pamphlets for distribution, and literature relating to the deaf and the blind. Books written by the deaf and the blind should also be placed here.

our State schools, our relation to the College, the advantages and disadvantages of day-schools and their supervision and relation to the State school, post-graduate courses, aid and supervision for the deaf subsequent to school life, and many other subjects constantly brought to a superintendent's attention and not usually touched upon at our other meetings except in an incidental and superficial manner. A synoptical programme, giving place of meeting, hours of daily sessions, papers to be read, subjects for discussion, etc., etc., will be issued in due time. Members of the Conference, active or honorary, and visitors from abroad, who may wish to read papers or take part in discussion upon any particular phase of our work, or who desire to send papers for reading by others and for publication, or who may wish to suggest any question for consideration in the Conference either by themselves or by others or by means of a question box through assignment by the Committee, are urgently requested to communicate with the Chairman not later than June 1, so that a tentative programme may be promptly issued giving much needed information. Written papers should not require more than fifteen minutes to read, and individual discussion should be limited to ten minutes.

Regular sessions of the Conference will be held on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the Tuesday intervening being given over to participation in the special feature of the week, the HELEN KELLER DAY demonstration, arrangements for which are making under direction of the Exposition authorities and a special Committee, the details of which will be outlined in the Conference programme.

Foreign professional journals are respectfully requested to make notice of and copy this call.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON, *Chairman*, Indiana,
 FRANCIS D. CLARKE, Michigan,
 JOSEPH H. JOHNSON, Alabama,
 WM. K. ARGO, Colorado,
 A. L. E. CROUTER, Pennsylvania,
The Executive Committee.

INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA,
February 9, 1904.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

HAUDERING, F. W. Die Praxis des erziehlchen Taubstummenunterrichtes, ausgebaut nach dem wirklichen Lebensbedürfnisse der Zöglinge. Eine kritische Durchsicht der neuzeitlichen Lehrverfassung mit Lehrproben und Vorschlägen zur Hebung des Erfolges im Lautsprachunterrichte. Für Lehrer und Angehörige der Taubstummen bearbeitet. [The Practice of Deaf-Mute Instruction, based upon the necessities of the pupil's actual life. A critical survey of the present condition of instruction, with pedagogical tests and suggestions intended to produce better results in oral teaching. For teachers and relatives of deaf-mutes.] Guben: Berger's Buchhandlung. 1903. 8vo., pp. 227.

This is not a large book, but it shows "genius for taking pains." In prefatory clearness, careful indexing, valuable and accurate synopses, and judicious time-saving arrangement of material it could not be surpassed by the weightiest tome which even German erudition might produce. In these respects it is an object lesson to pedagogical writers on this side of the Atlantic; the educational treatises constantly thrown from the hopper of the American press are usually extremely slipshod in their prefatory announcements.

Mr. Haudering realizes that teachers of the deaf are a very busy class of persons—too busy perhaps, he thinks, to read his book as carefully as he might like to have it read. Therefore, in the first place, he gives his work a comprehensive title. Next, because he feels that certain portions of the work are more useful for teachers than other portions, he gives, conspicuously and briefly, on the first fly-leaf, references to the chapters and parts of chapters which he would have his pedagogical circle of readers especially take to heart. The reader is not forced, as often happens in the case of educational works, to go over a hundred or more pages to find out what his author is driving at and just what he believes. Mr. Haudering at once lets the reader into the secret of the spirit of his book by a quotation from the German pioneer, Hill:

"That the results of our instruction are so meagre that our teaching proves so unfruitful in the later life of our pupils, is due, often, to the fact that we are too prone to look out the

real world and depend in our teaching too much on text-books and artificial aids and appliances."

Then comes a brief and admirable preface, the first paragraph of which gives some excellent reasons for the existence of the book:

"A comprehensive statement of present-day methods of deaf-mute instruction; an ideal picture of the sort of teaching which must be given in order to fit the deaf pupil for citizenship in this world and to prepare him for the life beyond; an enumeration of certain things to be avoided, and of others for which place must be made in order to make school-room work more fruitful and to quicken spiritual development, should need no words of justification."

Mr. Haudering well adds:

"Every person engaged in this work should take part in the effort to secure for our profession the recognition it deserves."

Next, we find a table of contents with each chapter of the book very fully subdivided under appropriate headings. The reader who is seeking a special topic may, from the table of contents, locate his subject instantly.

Last, but by no means least, Mr. Haudering has put what he considers his most important paragraphs and sentences into large type with double parallel lines on the left margin—an ingenious device which most of us have used in our classrooms, but which Mr. Haudering is among the first, perhaps, to utilize in print.

For the English-speaking teacher, the most helpful portions of this book are:

The able Introduction; Chapter I, dealing with the personality and essential qualifications of the ideal teacher of the deaf; Chapter III, on the first two years of instruction; Chapter VII, on signs; and Chapter VIII, on the choice of speech-material. Although the remaining chapters deal largely with difficulties peculiar to the German language, the English teacher, nevertheless, will find something on nearly every page which he can apply practically.

The book breathes a kindly spirit that is pleasant and, in a book dealing necessarily with technicalities, rather unusual. One feels that the author is a "house-father." In speaking of

the essential qualifications for a successful teacher of the deaf, Mr Haudering says:

"The teacher must know how to throw himself quickly into a given situation: must be able to enter into the inner life of his pupil: must possess a friendly, earnest, yet childlike nature in order to be interested in all that his pupils find interesting." The frame of mind thus outlined, the author constantly insists, is the foundation upon which the teacher must build if he would rear a structure of lasting importance. Over and over again throughout the entire book, he insists that future intellectual and moral growth for the child must rest on this basis of mutual love and perfect understanding between him and his teacher.

Mr. Haudering's advocacy of the natural method is pronounced and sane. He would have everything which happens to, or before, the child—all that comes in any way whatsoever before his consciousness—at once turned into language. Later, grammatical drill upon the constructions used may be in order. Mr Haudering is an oralist. All language he would, of course, have spoken as well as written.

In regard to signs the author seems to stand where most of the best teachers of Germany stand to-day. He frankly confesses that where several deaf children are together the prohibition of signs is useless. He goes farther. He says that teachers should themselves understand the signs which their pupils use, since their sign language is something like "a window through which we teachers may often catch glimpses of the dark interior of our children's minds, and to their profit." He adds: "In this study of the signs used by our pupils we find much that would be of value to the psychologist. We see into the inner workshop of speech, as it were." Examples of signs that have sprung from peculiarities of speech and *vice versa* are given. It seems that signs, like garden plants, sometimes escape confining walls and run back to wildness. For instance, the sign for ten pfennigs is not, as might be expected, made by holding out ten fingers but, instead, by holding the forefinger of the right hand upright before the mouth—the lips rounded and protruding as in the sound of *sch*. Formerly ten pfennigs made a *groschen*. In learning to speak the

word *groschen* the forefinger was usually held before the mouth to feel the breath caused by making the *sch* sound. Bright little deaf-mutes, evidently, found it less work to hold up a finger before the lips than to try to articulate such a mouthful of a word as *groschen*—hence the sign. Other examples given cannot be easily translated into English. Mr. Haudering also traces many language defects to the sign language. He would do all in his power to discourage the use of signs while frankly confessing that such discouragement has, usually, but little effect. He says :

“ Shall we, then, let any good opportunity pass to set before our pupils, in the clearest light, the insufficiency, the impossibility, of signs as a means of intercourse with the hearing? Assuredly not, in spite of the fact that we know, from experience, that our children will by no means at once give up signs because of our arguments against their use.”

The chapter on the choice of speech material is especially good. We are somewhat given to bemoaning the extreme difficulty of English speech for deaf learners. But the Germans have even a harder language task than we. The poor little German deaf-mute must master four forms of his step-mother tongue. Mr. Haudering enumerates these forms :

1. Book language (High German).
2. Bible language (archaic).
3. Colloquial language (*bürgerlich*).
4. Dialect (*Mundart*).

Most children in the German schools for the deaf belong to the middle and poorer classes. If they are not to be forever separated from their home friends they must know the home dialect. The every-day language of the school must be in correct grammatical form. Much more time daily is given to religious instruction than we find necessary. Bible language is used by the pupils' spiritual guides, and they must be trained to understand that lofty speech. Idioms, in German as in English, are a snare and a delusion. Verily, our German colleagues have troubles of their own. Mr. Haudering, like the sensible educator he seems, makes an eloquent plea for keeping the home language at almost any cost. His “ practical suggestions ” are genuinely practical and must

prove exceedingly helpful to all teachers of the German language.

This book is full of good sense. Mr. Haudering would have teachers urge their pupils, after leaving school, to seek work in the country rather than in cities. He would not have the average deaf child over-educated. He seeks to make teachers keep in touch with their former pupils—to continue acting as advisers to them. His little book cannot fail to do much good if taken thoroughly to heart as it deserves to be. It is an earnest reminder to us all of our one great and sacred duty—to make our deaf children realize that language is a part of life. Nay more, as Mr. Haudering constantly insists, we must make them feel that for them, either in this world or the next, without language there can be no life in the truest sense of that word. The task is very easy, and the craving for language once awakened, all we have to do is to answer it. The teacher that answereth not this language craving in season and out of season—let him be Anathema.

SARAH HARVEY PORTER,
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NITCHIE, EDWARD B. *Self-Instructor in Lip-Reading.* E. B. Nitchie, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York. 8vo., pp. 162. [Price \$1.00 postpaid.]

This book is designed to help the hard-of-hearing in learning to read the lips. The author has devised what he calls "a system of symbols," which represent the positions taken by the organs of speech in making the sounds of the English language. There are eighteen of these symbols, which are merely combinations of letters, namely:

<i>Position.</i>	<i>Sounds.</i>	<i>Facial Appearance.</i>	<i>Symbols.</i>
1	long ē	"narrow mouth"	na
2	f, v	"lip-to-teeth"	lt
3	p, b, m	"lips shut"	ls
4	long oo	a "puckered mouth"	pu
5	short oo, w, wh	a "small oval"	so
6	Italian ä	"wide mouth"	wi
7	short ũ & u in <i>fur</i> .	an "elliptical mouth"	el
8	r	"elliptical puckered"	ep

9	{ short ĭ unaccented ē consonant y	a "relaxed narrow mouth "	rn
10	th	"tongue front "	tf
11	t, d, n	"tongue to gum "	tg
12	l	"apex to gum "	ag
13	{ broad a o in <i>form</i> .	a "spherical triangle "	st
14	s, z	a "tightened narrow mouth"	tn
15	short ă	a "large oval "	lo
16	sh, zh, ch, j	a "protruded mouth "	pr
17	{ short ě a in <i>care</i> .	a "medium oval "	mo
18	k, g, ng	"undefined "	uu

Each position is described. With the description are given two half-tone reproductions of the position—one representing a woman's mouth and the other a man's.

Of course the lip-reader must learn to read faulty mouths, but it would seem to be better to have a perfect mouth as a model. The woman's underlip is held in the same relaxed impassive way in every position, with lower teeth completely hidden. Cuts 2, 14, and 16 might all be taken for the "lt"—"lip-to-teeth"—position. As the models stand the inexperienced lip reader might be led to believe there was one way of talking for a man and another for a woman. The man's mouth gives a much better idea of correctly formed sounds.

The student, mirror in hand, is supposed to copy the different positions as represented by these model mouths, and write down the symbol for each position as he gives it. He resolves words and sentences into the symbols. For instance, "The sea is smooth = tf-el tn-na rn-tn tn-ls-pu-tf. The author claims that this is a valuable aid to memory and keeps the mind from wandering, especially in studying without a teacher.

The question suggests itself, What is the advantage of these symbolic abbreviations over the letters of the alphabet and diacritical marks? Is not the sound of *f*, for instance, as likely to be remembered by the letter *f* as if the combination "lt" stood for it? What is the use of building up a scaffold-

ing which must soon after be removed and the letter brought into view at last? I have found in my experience that the use of the single letters of the alphabet and diacritical marks secure far quicker results than any scheme of symbols, combination of letters or figures, no matter how ingeniously they are arranged and how plausible they appear. All these so-called aids tend to distract and confuse, and affect the nerves of the learner unpleasantly. I recall a woman trying to learn lip-reading by means of one of these systems (with a teacher) who wept in despair at the task set before her and finally gave it up altogether. The nervous strain in her case was probably increased by the fact that she had paid for her lessons in advance. As a matter of fact these schemes are not so easy to remember, while the alphabet is familiar. Why not then associate a position with a familiar symbol and give the learner one thing instead of two to master?

There are one or two inaccuracies in grouping that should be noted. Consonant *y* is classed with short *i* when in fact it is above long *e* in the scale, so high as to cause the friction which makes it a vowel. *W* and *w* are classed with short *oo*. They should be placed before long *oo* in the scale, in order to bring out their consonantal quality.

The author's system of teaching vowels seems somewhat disorderly. Vowels are more easily mastered if taught in their relations to each other. Show in the descending scale of front vowels *e*, *i*, *ä*, *è*, *â*, how from the almost closed mouth in *e* the mouth opens wider and wider with mathematical precision until it reaches its widest opening in *â*. The same can be shown with the back vowels *o*, *u*, *ö*, *ü*, or *u*, then the mixed vowels and the other glide vowels. This classification strengthens the memory.

While there are some things to criticize this book contains much of value. The lists of words and selections of sentences and sketches are admirable. The author, who is himself hard of hearing, is an example of what can be accomplished with his method. After one year of practice he had business and personal dealings with people for weeks and months before they discovered that he was deaf. His advice to learners is excellent:

"Don't forget to use the mirror. Don't do your work carelessly. Don't try to do too much at a time. Don't study more than an hour at a sitting. Don't expect results unless you work for them. Don't forget to make your pronunciation as natural as possible."

Some of his "Do's" are :

"Do study faithfully. Do study regularly. Do study at least one hour a day. Do keep it up until you succeed."

The book is valuable in that it gives a complete outline of work to be done, describing the method as definitely as possible. There is probably no other work that goes into the subject so thoroughly. If one cannot command the skilled teacher by all means let him learn from a book, but let him have personal instruction if possible. The help of friends is apt to be intermittent, and in their efforts to speak plainly inexperienced persons distort the mouth and make it unnatural.

Mr. Nitchie has a correspondence course, supplementing the lessons in the book. He also teaches in his studio in New York. The author has served the cause of the hard-of-hearing instead of mammon. He has proved himself an altruist in giving his system to the world. He has not kept it to give to private pupils behind closed doors.

KATE H. FISH,

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WATSON, SAMUEL. Report of Visits to Various Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind in Great Britain and America. Sydney. 1903. 8vo., pp. 15.

Last year Mr. Watson, Superintendent of the New South Wales Institution at Sydney, was granted a leave of absence for six months, and he devoted part of this time to visiting schools for the deaf and the blind in Europe and America. The number of schools for the deaf thus visited was twenty-five. He found the heads of these schools frank, friendly, courteous, and ready to enter into every detail in giving explanations. He was further gratified by the spirit of brotherhood he discovered amongst them and their anxiety to discover and adopt whatever might improve, educationally or otherwise, the welfare of those committed to their care.

Mr. Watson does not go into details concerning the several schools visited, but in America he mentions the New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Clarke Schools and Gallaudet College. He says that at Northampton "the pupils' speech was excellent, but it would be difficult, even if desirable, to institute comparisons, especially when the results in the American institutions gave such general satisfaction."

With respect to methods his conclusion is that "the Combined System does the greatest good to the greatest number of pupils," and that "the theory of teaching on oral lines to the exclusion of all signs is rarely practicable."

He expresses the opinion that the residential institution is preferable to the day-school; that small dormitories are better than large ones, and that physical culture, technical instruction, and nature study are of great value.

In conclusion he says that in the onward march in the education of the deaf everywhere apparent, the Institution at Sydney "is scarcely outstripped by any in the British Isles, and is certainly ahead of some I visited both there and in France. If in America better results are to be noticed in the higher classes, it must be remembered that in that country the pupils spend a longer time at school; they enjoy the benefits of education continuously up to manhood and to womanhood; and, finally, the advantage of a college course lies open to pupils of conspicuous ability."

Lettere e Recensioni relative alla Storia del R. Istituto Nazionale pei Sordomuti in Genova Pubblicata dal Dott. D. Silvio Monaci nel 1901 [Letters and Reviews relating to the History of the National Royal Institution for Deaf-Mutes at Genoa, published by Dr. D. Silvio Monaci in 1901]. Genoa: Tipografia R. Istituto Sordomuti. 1903. Large 8vo., pp. 79.

A collection of the congratulatory letters written to Dr. Monaci and the friendly reviews and notices published in European and American periodicals relating to the History of the Genoa Institution, which was published by Dr. Monaci, the Director of the Institution, on the first centenary of its establishment. The History was noticed in the *Annals*, xlvii, 205.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION. *Proceedings of the Department of Special Education in the Annual Convention at Boston, Massachusetts, July, 1903.* Reprinted from the Boston Volume of Proceedings.

This reprint may be obtained, while the limited supply lasts, from Mr. Irwin Shepherd, Secretary of the Association, Winona, Minnesota, for ten cents a copy: cash with order. Postage stamps will be accepted for small amounts. The complete volume of Proceedings, containing the papers and discussions of all departments, will be sent, express prepaid, for \$2.00.

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS, 1903. Buenos Aires (for girls), Groningen (Netherlands), Maryland, Rotterdam (Netherlands), Texas Vanersborg (Sweden), Virginia.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Florida School.—Miss Agnes Steinke, formerly of the Wisconsin and Indiana Schools, has been appointed teacher in the place of Miss Frances K. Bell, who has returned to the North Carolina School.

Frankfort Institution.—Mr. J. Vatter, Director of the Institution at Frankfort-on-the-Main, and one of the most prominent teachers of the deaf in Germany, celebrated the fortieth anniversary of his connection with that Institution December 1, 1903. Mr. Vatter was a teacher in the Nürtingen Institution from 1861 to 1863, and since then has been at Frankfort, for ten years as teacher, and for thirty as director, though he has never ceased to be an actual teacher. He has written several valuable text-books, and for the past twenty years has been editor of the periodical *Organ der Taubstummenanstalten in Deutschland*, which this year reaches its fiftieth volume.

Illinois School.—Miss Frances F. Wait, a valued teacher in this School from 1882 to 1898, died at Lincoln, Nebraska, February 4, 1904. Her withdrawal from the work of teaching six years ago was due to illness, and she never recovered her health. For the last two years she was confined to her room.

most of the time. She was a daughter of Mr. Selah Wait, one of the first teachers of the School.

Le Conteulx St. Mary's Institution.—Sister M. Dositheus, the esteemed Assistant Principal of the Institution and Superior of the house, celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of her religious profession January 1, 1904. There were religious ceremonies in which the Right Reverend Bishop Colton took part, and there were addresses from present and former pupils. The former pupils presented her with a handsome pedestal of Italian marble, which is placed in the chapel.

New York Institution.—In accordance with the wishes of the late Benjamin R. Winthrop, for many years a Director of the Institution and President of the Board of Directors, his children have established an annual prize, to be known as the "Ida Montgomery Testimonial." The name is given in honor of a deaf lady, who was a brilliant pupil of the Institution while Mr. Winthrop was President, graduating in 1863, and for the following thirty-six years was a beloved and successful teacher. The annual income from the fund is at present \$100, and this sum is to be given each year to the pupil showing the greatest excellence in studies, character, and manual skill. No pupil is eligible who has lost his hearing after attaining the age of fifteen years, and the testimonial is to be bestowed only in case the excellence is deemed worthy of reward. If not given in any one year, the interest of that year may be either added to the principal or used for improving the means of instruction in the manual arts.

Mr. Edward Mitchell Townsend, a Life Member of the Institution since the year 1874, a Director since 1882, and Treasurer since 1884, died of pneumonia February 2, 1904, aged seventy-five. He took a constant and active interest in the welfare of the Institution, visiting it frequently, and doing much to promote the work of instruction both in the intellectual and the trades departments.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—Miss Nannie Fleming, of the Oral Department, has resigned to be married, and is succeeded by Miss Frances K. Bell, formerly of this School, but more recently of the Florida School.

Ontario Institution.—Miss Florence Cross, for six years a teacher in the Newcastle (England) Institution, has been appointed teacher of articulation.

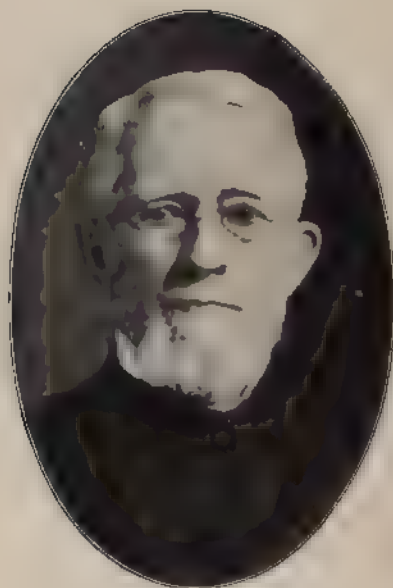
Streator School.—In the January *Annals* Miss Edith Brown was wrongly named as the teacher in charge of the day-school at Streator, Illinois. Miss Brown formerly held that position, but the present teacher is Miss Helen Owen, a graduate of the training class of the McCowen School.

Western New York Institution.—The name of the *Daily Paper for our Little People* has been changed to *Rochester Daily Advocate of English and Speech for the Deaf*. The character of this excellent paper is not essentially changed, but it was thought that the former title was too restrictive for a journal intended for the alumni and the parents and friends of the school, as well as the actual pupils.

Wisconsin School.—Mr. E. W. Walker, Superintendent, was elected President of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association at its meeting in Milwaukee last December. More than two thousand teachers were present at this meeting.

A second deaf-blind girl, Annie Johnson, aged sixteen, and deprived of sight and hearing only a few years ago, has been admitted to the School. She had received a fair elementary education before becoming deaf-blind, and she retains the power of speech.

Yorkshire (England) Institution.—Mr. G. H. Greenslade has been appointed headmaster of this Institution. Mr. Greenslade was a teacher in the Exeter Institution for seven years, and for the past eighteen years has been head assistant in the Yorkshire Institution, having charge of the physical training and woodworking classes in addition to teaching the highest class. He says: "I am an oralist, decidedly. But speech teaching does not and must not involve the neglect of the thinking powers and of general education. By all means give each child his 'God-given birthright of articulate speech' wherever possible. This, however, must be backed up by writing, so that each member of the class has an equal chance of developing language and securing knowledge. Writing is 'the ultimate test, as well as an indispensable aid. And all aids are our servants, not our masters.'"



REV. JOHN G. BROWN, D.D.

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JOHN G. BROWN.

REV. JOHN G. BROWN, D. D., was the founder of the Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, was Principal of the school for four years, and with the exception of this time was President of the Board of Trustees from its organization till his death, which occurred March 4, 1904. He was born in Pittsburg, January 14, 1824, and spent his entire life in the city of his nativity. He was graduated from the Western University of Pennsylvania and received his ministerial training in the Western Theological Seminary of Allegheny. He held but one pastorate, but that was for a quarter of a century, and was entered upon when he was not yet twenty-three years of age. He was subsequently Secretary of the Board of Home Missions of the United Presbyterian Church, which position he retained for thirteen years.

The story of the steps by which he became interested in the education of the deaf forms an interesting chapter in the history of our school, but cannot here be told. It was in a mission Sabbath-school connected with his church that the Institution had its origin, and its development was so rapid that one is led to wonder how a busy man could find time to guide it through its various changes. Founded

as a day-school, it soon outgrew the limited space at its command in a Pittsburg public school, and was moved to more commodious quarters. Finding the attendance of its pupils irregular, a boarding house was added to its equipment; then, outgrowing this, it moved into the country to occupy a much larger and more comfortable home. Money having been raised, largely through Dr. Brown's solicitation, a new building was erected. This being destroyed by fire after a few years, temporary buildings were erected and occupied and Dr. Brown was again called upon to raise funds with which to rebuild. He was by this time well advanced in years, having passed his seventy-eighth birthday, but he at once took up his old work of soliciting aid in behalf of the deaf.

The succession of events that led to Dr. Brown's appointment as Principal of the school in August, 1885, was peculiar. Dr. MacIntire, who had been in charge, resigned after a protracted illness, and the Board, almost new in the management of the affairs of the school, found themselves with a well equipped plant on their hands, but with no one with sufficient knowledge to manage it. They turned with one accord to Dr. Brown and insisted that he should take charge of the school. He reluctantly consented to accept the responsibility, feeling that as he had been largely instrumental in bringing it into existence, and as it was due to his influence that many of the Trustees had assumed positions on the Board, he owed them this sacrifice of his personal wishes. After putting the Institution on a firm basis he wished to retire, but the Board insisted on his retaining the place another year, which he agreed to do on condition that he should be allowed to resign at the close of the next term of school. Accordingly he looked about for a successor and at the expiration of the year made his recommendation to the Board, and the present incumbent was selected for the place. But the Doctor was not allowed to give up his active work for

the school. He was re-elected President of the Board of Trustees and requested to keep in touch with the school by frequent visits and conferences with the Principal. This he continued to do, and his weekly visits were looked forward to by the pupils and teachers with anticipations of pleasure till the close of his life.

It does not fall to the lot of many men to have the confidence of the wealthy business men of the community as it was possessed by Dr. Brown. He was frequently called upon to solicit funds for the erection of buildings and otherwise to supplement the support of the State, and no one ever questioned the needs of the cause which he presented, for the very fact that he undertook to raise money was a guarantee that it was needed. The Institution was always in his mind. He seldom met a friend without the conversation being directed to the affairs of the school. His one dominating purpose was to keep the Institution before the public in order that it might have the recognition that it merited.

The funeral services were simple yet impressive, but a stronger testimony to the character of the man than any that the ministers could express was the presence of a large gathering, at the church, of the former pupils of the Institution. Their sorrow was sincere. During his life Dr. Brown was able to command to an eminent degree the affection and confidence of those who had attended our school. He was consulted by them frequently in their prosperity and their adversity, officiated at a large number of their weddings, and was a welcome guest in all their households. It was his peculiar delight to hear of the success of his deaf friends, and any information that came to him tending to show their kindness of heart, fidelity, or financial success was sure to be repeated over and over again in order to establish the claims of the deaf to the favorable consideration of men and women of influence in the community.

While Dr. Brown's interest in the unfortunate manifested itself most clearly in his connection with the deaf, he was not unmindful that other classes had a claim upon his sympathy. He became interested in the education of the blind and, while he was not called upon to become so intimately associated with the Institution for the Blind as with our own, he was however a charter member of its Board of Trustees, and at the time of his death was the President.

As he grew older his great pleasure was to make friends for his children of silence (as he used to style them) among the young people, who, he said, would some time be called on to take the places in the community now held by their elders, and whose education in philanthropy should begin at as early an age as possible. It was his custom to take the addresses of those who seemed interested in his narratives and send them copies of our Institution paper from time to time.

Of the twenty-seven men whose names appear on the charter of the Institution all are gone, and he who was the first to take up the work was the last to receive the summons.

The æsthetic side of Dr. Brown's nature was highly developed. He had a keen appreciation of poetry and could recite long stanzas from the older poets. True to his Scotch ancestry Burns was his favorite. He took especial delight in reciting the metrical version of the Psalms, and as his voice was remarkably clear and full it was a pleasure to listen to him repeat verse after verse and to hear his comments upon them. He was also a discriminating judge of painting, and while he laid no claim to unusual talent as an artist, the pictures that he painted in his younger days bear evidence of no mean skill. Church architecture and church decoration were subjects to which he had given a great deal of attention and upon which he held very positive and intelligent opinions.

Dr. Brown was an unusually active man and in his well-spent life, which was longer than that permitted to most men, accomplished much for his fellow man, but the labor that bore the most abundant fruit and that for which he will be longest remembered was that spent in behalf of the deaf; and the noble buildings and efficient organization of the Institution he founded will stand as an enduring monument to his industry, wisdom, and broad philanthropy.

WILLIAM N. BURT,
*Principal of the Western Pennsylvania
Institution, Edgewood Park, Pennsylvania.*

THREE YEARS OF LANGUAGE.

Introductory note of a somewhat personal nature.

THIS article does not pretend to be a scientifically arranged course of study in language and it pleads guilty, but with extenuating circumstances, to many faults of arrangement and to a loose use of technical grammatical terms.

First, as to faults of arrangement. It is of course possible, at the expense of much time, study, and care, to construct an almost perfect course of study. The Jesuits did it toward the end of the sixteenth century; so did Sturm; so have many others fashioned courses so carefully worked out in every detail that an automaton could have followed them almost as well as a flesh-and-blood teacher. But these courses, so perfect in themselves, are too likely to appear to their makers finished products, to be preserved with care, rather than growing things which are capable of sloughing off the old and developing the new. Such perfect courses have an academic value as standards, but they are not very desirable as schoolroom

guides. Speaking broadly it may with safety be asserted that no closed system can long remain serviceable to any body of workers in a civilization which is evolutionary in its character.

The plan which forms the subject of this article was worked out with a good deal of care in the summer of 1900. The materials used were of two kinds: first, articles by other teachers of the deaf, reports of conventions, etc.; and, second, diaries and class note-books in which the writer had for several years hastily noted, from day to day, details of lessons, devices, and ways of getting at things which the moment teaches but which are so easily forgotten. Since 1900 the plan has undergone many changes; a little has been taken away and much has been added; and the experience of this present year is showing that more changes must be made before next year.

This constant change, however, has had the result of making over a tabulated course of study into a series of short essays upon ways and means of teaching various topics, kept at hand in black and white for occasional reference in order that what has proved valuable in the past may not be forgotten and lost as new devices come into use.

The loose use of technical grammatical terms can be explained very briefly. The writer received her early education in the schools of Quincy, Massachusetts, just when Col. Francis W. Parker and Hon. John Quincy Adams had forbidden the study of English grammar and substituted something called "Language." Therefore she never learned to parse or to analyze "Paradise Lost." The study of foreign languages gave her some idea of grammar itself, but of its English technical terms she remained ignorant until in somewhat advanced life necessity forced her to look them up, and then to her horror she found that each modern text-book contained a different nomenclature.

In this particular article the terms are usually those of Whitney's "Essentials of English Grammar," but occasionally they are based on no authority but that of common sense.

If it be asked why, when so many satisfactory courses of study have already appeared in the *Annals*, yet another avowedly incomplete one should be submitted to its readers, the writer can only say that her conscience gave her "leave to print" just because those courses and the many articles on the teaching of particular subjects have proved such a mine of wealth to her in the past. It is safe to say that no suggestion which a teacher writes as the result of actual experience is ever entirely valueless to any other teacher who reads it. The reader may disagree utterly with the writer, but that very disagreement rouses a train of thought which leads to a new feature in the next day's or week's teaching, a something which is likely to modify all future teaching in some slight detail, and anything which tends to interrupt routine teaching is subjectively valuable.

So if class teachers who read the *Annals* find in this article bits here and there which they can pick out, change and mould to their liking, improve upon in many ways, and finally use occasionally in their daily teaching, the "leave to print" will have been fully justified.

First Year.

The plan of work in Language here presented begins with the second year of school life; it is intended for children who enter school young, often under five, and so is built upon a first year which provides for almost no actual language teaching; when, however, an entering class is composed of children older, brighter, or more mature, the work here proposed for the second year would be begun at the end of a few months, and, on the other

hand, individuals might not be prepared for it before their third year. During this first year of preparation the pupils are taught to speak, write, and recognize the spoken and written forms of the elements ; to speak, write, and recognize combinations of the elements, and when such combinations are English words, to understand their meaning, if such an understanding does not involve too great an expenditure of their time. From among these combinations the names of a few common objects are selected and taught as words, carefully, to serve as the beginning of a vocabulary. These words are used by the teacher in speech-reading lessons in which the child is directed to "Put a ball on the table," or to "Give a ball to Lucy." When the child has performed his action he takes his place and disposes of his object at a blackboard ruled for the five columns, and the teacher writes the statement "John put a ball," etc., but during this first year the child is not expected either to say the sentence or to write it independently, although he may copy it as an exercise in writing.

There is an exercise really not much more than a play, which produces good results in language later in classes where the five-column system is to be used. This consists of the performance of all sorts of actions, beginning with very simple ones and gradually working up to some which are rather complicated, the actor and the objects involved being each time disposed in their proper places at the five columns. Of course, the teacher must take the lead and keep it, lest the exercise degenerate into meaningless play, and more or less thought is necessary to make the exercise serve its purpose ; but properly conducted it may help to lay the foundation for plurals, compound subject, compound predicate, and compound sentence, in a very easy and natural way. In all essentials this year of preparation is identical with the first work of most oral classes, and so, perhaps, this simple

description of it will suffice. Theoretically the children enter upon their second year speaking the elements and a few words, nearly all nouns, and recognizing upon the teacher's lips the imperative form of a few of the commoner verbs in addition to the words which they can themselves speak. Practically they have forgotten nearly everything during their first long summer vacation, and must spend two or three weeks in recalling their knowledge. They seem like beginners, but it is only seeming; they have the habit of watching the teacher's lips, they know that further enlightenment awaits them on the blackboard, they can write, and they have a standard of behavior, if they do not always live up to the same; all these constitute a great difference between real beginners and these second-year children.

Second Year.

Verbs (transitive and intransitive).

Indicative and imperative moods.

Past and future tenses.

Present tense when sense requires it.

Negatives.

To be in the past, present, and future.

Nouns.

Singular and plural.

Names of persons, places, and streets.

Common nouns in classes.

Possessive case of proper names.

Pronouns.

All the personal pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns (see "Sentence Forms").

Indefinite pronouns: *some, any*.

Adjectives.

The definite and indefinite article.

The possessive pronouns.

The numeral adjectives.

Adjectives of color.

Such others as come up.

Adverbs.

A very few for which the need actually arises.

Prepositions.

All those in common use for which the need arises -

Conjunctions

and,

because,*

if.*

*Sentence Forms.***The simple sentence.**

Assertive.

Imperative.

Interrogative.

Assertive sentences.

One subject and one verb.

Two subjects and one verb.

One subject and two verbs.

Direct object.

Indirect object.

Prepositional phrase.

Subject with one modifier.

Direct object with one modifier.

Indirect object with one modifier.

Verb with one modifier.

* Used by the teacher only in incidental language.

Imperative sentences.

Oral and written directions in the imperative, much by the teacher, little by the children.

Interrogative sentences.

Who? What? Where?

When? What color?

How many? What did —— do?

Whom? Whose?

Questions beginning with parts of the verb *to be*.

Questions beginning with the auxiliaries (Can?

Do? Does? Did? Shall? Will?)

Third Year.

Verbs (transitive and intransitive).

Indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods.

Past and future tenses.

Habitual present.

Present progressive.

To be in past, present, and future.

Nouns.

Irregular plurals.

The beginning of plural possessives.

Such expressions as

A pair of ——.

A piece of ——.

A bottle of ——.

A box of ——.

A spoonful of ——.

Pronouns.

Personal pronouns more freely used.

Demonstratives.

Adjectives.

Possessive pronouns continued.

An increased number of adjectives used in the positive degree.

The beginning of the comparative and superlative

Adverbs.

Used more freely.

Prepositions.

Such new prepositions as come up naturally.

Conjunctions

if,* because,* but, when.

Sentence Forms.

Simple and compound sentences with not more than two prepositional phrases.

Constructions with the infinitive (*like to go, want to see, etc.*).

The beginning of dependent clauses.

Imperative constructions of a more difficult nature written by the pupils.

Direct questions of all sorts. Especial emphasis on *What?* and some work on questions beginning with *If?*

There is, There are.

Here is, Here are.

*Fourth Year.***Verbs.**

Past progressive—*asked, said, told.*

Nouns.

Possessive case of common nouns, irregular and plural. Irregular plurals repeated.

* Used freely by the teacher, a little by the children.

Pronouns.

Indefinite pronouns—*many, few, all, some one, somebody, every one, everybody, etc.*

The compound personal pronouns.

Adjectives.

Comparative and superlative degree, *continued.*

Adverbs.

Comparative degree.

Prepositions.

Prepositional phrases.

Conjunctions

where, after, before, while, as soon as, as long as, until.

Sentence Forms.

Dependent clauses.

Complex sentences.

Direct and indirect quotations.

A Few General Principles.

I. That lesson is best which gives to the largest number of pupils an active part.

II. Never hesitate to aid the uncertainty of the spoken word by the certainty of the written.

III. A natural opportunity to teach a particular word or form is usually more valuable than a created opportunity.

IV. It is right and natural that the child's comprehension of language should be greater than his power of expression; *therefore*

V. The incidental language may contain forms still untaught in the regular work.

Explanations and Devices.

The work which has been roughly outlined in the preceding pages can be accomplished by means of various kinds of exercises, and the writer will here record a few which have proved useful to her at various times. While it is usually true that a device for teaching a given subject which a teacher works out for herself is almost sure to be a better one for *her* than one which comes from without, yet it often happens, nevertheless, that the device of some one else forms a convenient starting point from which to invent a new one.

The exercises which may be employed to teach the desired language forms are of many kinds and overlap and interlace in many ways. For the sake of convenience they are here reduced to a list of topics and each topic will be discussed singly.

Sentence work and written directions.

Series.

Letters and journals.

Pictures.

Stories.

Books.

The language of number.

Incidental language.

Memory exercises.

Time lessons (clock and calendar).

The making of sets of books.

Broadening lessons.

Questions.

Sentence Work.

The beginning of sentence work with deaf children is necessarily essentially the same whatever the system and whoever the teacher. The children *must* learn to use the

subject and the verb and the object in their proper order, and to add the indirect object or a prepositional phrase, and whatever device brings them most quickly to this result is a good device. The writer finds that the five columns, at least in her own mind, if not visible upon the blackboard, with a sixth column as soon as time-words and phrases are needed, furnish the quickest means of accomplishing this result in her own classes, and she calls Miss Barry blessed many times in a year.

As soon as fifteen or twenty verbs have been taught and the children are able to make statements when they perform an action or see one performed, original sentences begin. This is the hardest tug in the whole three years. It is easy enough to induce the children to manipulate words and to write—

A sheep ran.

A goat ran.

A dog ran.

and so on forever, but to make them use the words which they know, to relate something which lies within their own experience and outside the experience of their classmates, is pretty difficult, and yet, until they do use language for this purpose, language teaching is of little effect.

The writer usually gets her start in some such fashion as this: The verbs which have been thoroughly taught are always written in a list on a blackboard behind the class. The teacher surveys this list with a scrutinizing expression of countenance, then she allows a look of relief and interest to appear; then she goes over to the list and points out a verb, *shovelled*, let us say; returning to the front of the room she says, and writes, "A boy shovelled snow." Oh, yes, they know that; it was Russell who shovelled it the day *shovelled* was taught. The teacher repudiates this and substitutes the name of a boy unknown to them, says "far away," and "I saw —" or "I saw him."

By that time the children are ready to discuss snow-shovelling for the rest of the morning; but the teacher recalls their attention and repeats her performance, selecting another verb, *made*, perhaps. "A woman made a cake." So she goes on until repeated gazings at the verb-list have reminded her of many interesting experiences in her past life hitherto hidden from her pupils. Suddenly, without warning, her memory gives out, she knows nothing more to tell them. She looks and looks, but in vain, and the children look and look until some one of the verbs brings back to Mary's mind a thrilling experience, and—the work is done for the bright pupils!

But oh, the wear and tear of nerve tissue before the slow ones will do anything more than take a sentence from their next-door neighbors, and present it as their own with a change of subject, and stick to the assertion that they saw the happening themselves when the teacher knows they didn't.

In a day-school, where the daily experience of each child is different from that of every other, much which is interesting comes up and, of course, much which is difficult, because the children often attempt to relate experiences beyond their language powers, and the teacher naturally desires to be sure she is teaching language which really expresses the truth.

With the smallest children a rigid determination to find out the subject of every verb which they attempt to use, and a predicate for every noun, will usually result in a fairly accurate account of the essential features of a happening.

Toward the end of the first year questions begin to help out and play a more and more important part as time goes on. As the children acquire a larger vocabulary, however, and become capable of telling more, and comprehending more involved language, a good deal of pains has to be taken to find out just what a pupil is trying to say

and help him to express himself. An older child who lives in the same neighborhood can often furnish the clue, and a letter sent home one day has never in the writer's experience failed to bring a satisfactory explanation the next day. In a little while, too, the parents acquire the letter habit and the children arrive mornings with a note explaining some exciting event, prefaced by the remark "I know you will want to know about this." Of course all this writing and inquiring takes time, but as soon as the children find that their small affairs will not be forgotten they consent to delay very cheerfully, until the teacher is in a position to give them intelligent help.

Every class of ten contains children of widely differing mental capacity, and lesson periods have to be so planned that a certain amount shall be taught to every child, and also that an opportunity shall be given to the brighter minds to do their best while the slower ones are doing their own very much poorer best.

New constructions must be taught to all, and the bright ones must possess their souls in patience while the slow ones are trying to grasp the thought; but when the time for original sentences comes the bright ones can have their innings without injury to the others.

If the class is seated with tablets and pencils within sight of the verb list and requested to write sentences and bring each one up to the teacher, and the rule of standing in line is strictly adhered to so that all confusion is eliminated, it is possible to keep every child working almost every minute, to keep the work corrected sentence by sentence, and to obtain from the class as a whole its best effort, which in the case of the brightest will perhaps result in thirty sentences in a half hour, while the slowest cannot produce over seven. There is usually a gratifying demand for new nouns during such a lesson, and, as well as she can, the teacher must meet this by scribbling them onto a blackboard within hand's reach; but when

the demand is for verbs a point-blank refusal often seems wise, because the object of the lesson is to make the child apply what he has already learned to an expression of his past experience. Such a point as this, however, is of course best decided by the individual teacher.

As each new step in sentence building is taken by the children the sentences which they write during periods devoted to individual work naturally grow more elaborate and less accurate in construction.

When the compound-sentence stage is reached the stage of "mixed-up" language seems to be attained also. A great deal of written language placed before the children helps to control difficulties here. Long before the children are able to make a compound sentence or to "carry" a compound direction from the lips, it is quite possible for them to obey written directions which involve rather complicated actions; they enjoy doing it, and they get a general idea of the possibilities of a single sentence and of the relation of the parts, which gives them a prepared foundation when they are ready to make such sentences themselves. Such work, too, is a great help when reading begins, for it furnishes many opportunities for the use of little idiomatic expressions which can hardly be *taught*, but may surely be *learned* by frequent sight and comprehension. (That statement looks senseless as written; what is meant is this: if a teacher were to undertake in cold blood to teach the use of *Now* as an exclamatory adverb at the beginning of a sentence, or of "Again" used elliptically to signify "Do it again," she would have to explain so much that her pupils would get an exaggerated sense of the importance of the phrases, but a constant interpolation of such expressions in a perfectly natural way soon makes them so familiar that they never have to be formally *taught*.)

With a cabinetful of treasures within easy reach and the eyes of the class fixed upon the teacher's crayon,

write, "Edith, go to the cabinet and open the door and get a small red bed and put it under Verna's chair." *It* is connected by a line with *bed* and presents no difficulties. If Edith makes a mistake there are many volunteers to help her out, and there is enough in her task to ensure attention on the part of her classmates. "Now, Clyde, put the bed back into the cabinet," introduces a word, *back*, which is unknown in that particular sense; sometimes the bed will find its way to some child's back, but a persistent pointing to the words "into the cabinet" and saying them will usually get the bed where it belongs, and a repetition of the expression will soon make it familiar. "Mary, turn Johnnie around, so he can see the clock." "Do it again." "Do it again." "Again." "Again." "Now, make him sit down"—these can be made graphically plain by drawing a line under the first sentence and then connecting it with the sentence below which means the same, just as a pronoun is connected with its antecedent.

There is an oral adjunct to this work a little later in the game which adds much zest to it. Sometimes the teacher writes her direction on a slip of paper, presumably privately, but with the paper sufficiently exposed so that three or four children at one end of the class manage to see what she is doing; then while the favored child is reading the slip and struggling with it she *tells* the class in the equivalent to a stage whisper what is on the paper, with many injunctions to secrecy; they do not get it all, but they get some incidental speech-reading *and* the situation causes attention to the work in hand.

Just as soon as possible the children begin to write these directions themselves; sometimes each child writes one direction on paper and then the teacher transfers them one at a time verbatim to the blackboard, allowing volunteers to straighten them out before the required acts are performed; sometimes one child at a time writes on

elaborate sets of mounted ones which must be cared for and with which the children soon grow too familiar.

A word as to the trouble involved in having many pictures about. It is a very good plan to let this "trouble" fall upon the willing shoulders of the children. The writer has one rule which, right or wrong, she has followed successfully during many years of teaching—she never does herself what she can possibly make her pupils do, provided, of course, the work is suitable to their needs and beneficial to the formation of their characters. As soon as the teacher finds a book, magazine, paper, or advertising sheet containing desirable pictures she hands it over to some child together with an old, large brown-paper envelope which some one has given her (all friends are notified that large brown-paper envelopes form acceptable gifts). The next morning the envelope comes back containing all the pictures neatly cut out. Three or four times in the year the fourth-year class spends a lesson period in classifying pictures.

The children sit at their desks while the teacher marks off a number of columns on the blackboard, leaving the chalk-tray below clear; these columns she marks: People, Places, Animals, Families, Plays, Homes, Doing, Birds, etc.; then she takes up a handful of pictures and looks at them one at a time and places each in what she considers its appropriate place on the blackboard tray. Presently she lets a child try it and then another, until her general scheme is understood. Then she shows the children how to make imaginary columns on their desks and gives to each a pile of pictures to classify, meantime going about and settling disputed or doubtful points, often calling in the judgment of the whole class and sometimes even taking a vote where the question is hard to decide; for the classes naturally overlap frequently, and it often happens that a picture belongs quite as much to one class as another. However, it is possible to sort the pictures

pretty well in a general way, and they are then placed in other large brown-paper envelopes appropriately labelled and bestowed in a desk drawer devoted exclusively to pictures. As soon as the children learn that pictures neatly cut out are greatly desired by their teacher the question of future supply is ensured—contrary to economic law the mere desire *does* constitute an "effective demand."

Now as to the use of all this material. Before it can be used for language at all it can be profitably utilized in broadening the children's general information and in getting them ready to learn many things. Young pupils, deaf or hearing, have to be taught that many pictorial representations, each of them differing in certain details from all the others, yet stand for the same thing. The hearing child in a home well supplied with books and pictures learns this so early that it seems to come by nature; but the hearing child from an illiterate home and the deaf child alike have to be led to see that "a man's a man" though he wear the dress of civilization, the war paint of the savage, the gown of the eastern king, or the Roman toga; that a boat is a boat whether it is shaped like a common dory, a coracle, a canoe, a trireme, or the latest warship, and so on. Most children in a seashore town recognize water when a picture of the ocean is put before them, but it takes time to make them identify that element in pictures of brooks, rivers, springs, and watering troughs, coming out of spouts and gargoyles, and contained within a goblet on a pictured dinner table.

An early picture lesson and one often repeated for different language purposes is the turning of a class loose among a great number of apparently unsorted pictures to find just as many pictures of, say, *a man*, or *a boat*, or *an*, or *large* as possible. "Apparently unsorted" means that the teacher must have sufficient knowledge of the collection to be sure that there are enough representa-

tions of the thought in question to make the search worth while. There are several ways to "turn the class loose"; one is to put a large cloth on the floor and let the children get down on their knees and hunt, bringing each picture to the teacher or making an individual pile in a convenient place; this way is recommended for tired little people toward the end of a session. Another way is to give each child a handful of pictures at his desk or in his lap; another way is to hold up picture after picture rapidly before one child who says "yes" or "no" instantly; if he is right he gets the picture, if he is wrong it goes to the bottom of the pile, but not until the other children understand why the reciting child's decision is wrong.

Another kind of lesson which can be used very early and continued with good effect through the three years is this: The teacher selects ten or a dozen pictures and holds them in her hand, then she writes on the blackboard a sentence within the vocabulary and language grasp of the class, which is exactly descriptive of one picture, or, perhaps, some detail of one picture. The class reads the sentence carefully and then one child comes up and looks at picture after picture until he finds the right one. It is possible, by careful selection, to accomplish a good deal by this kind of a lesson; two pictures may correspond in many particulars and yet differ in some one essential described in the sentence. When a child is able to discriminate carefully in a lesson like this, he is *reading* and the teacher knows that he is getting the right thought from the subject matter.

When compound sentences are being taught pictures are a great help. "The boy is flying a kite and the girl is looking at him." The actual sight of the two people differently engaged at the same time seems to make the compound sentence natural.

The question of the tense to be used in describing pictures is too complicated to be entered upon here—much

paper and ink and gray matter have already been wasted upon it and it will probably never be settled. The writer does not bother about it any more. If the class knows only the past then that tense is used in the picture work ; if it knows the present progressive and the past, actions in process are described by the first and those obviously finished by the past ; if the future is known and it is evident in the picture that something is about to happen the future is used. If the children are far enough advanced it is sometimes interesting to scribble *now, before, by and by*, on the backs of some pictures and have the children write their descriptions in the appropriate tenses. In the fourth year (third of language), when the significance of dates is understood, pictures can be dated, *June 5, 1907, April 24, 1839*, etc., and the children led to use the proper tenses. Or such phrases as *a long time ago, next summer, and once upon a time*, can furnish a reason for using a particular tense.

After a sufficient vocabulary has been acquired individual work with pictures becomes practicable and affords a good chance for each child to produce according to his ability and consume (of the teacher's time and strength) according to his need. After a class has had many lessons in telling about a single picture, each child volunteering something, then each one may have a different picture and try to see what he can do without help. It is painfully little at first, and it remains painfully little for a long time with some children ; but, on the other hand, truly astonishing results are reached in individual cases after the imagination really gets to working. If a set of picture-books is kept containing all the work done by the children individually a good deal of interest is added to the work.

Some further words concerning the use of pictures will appear under some of the other topics.

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[TO BE CONTINUED.]

OBSERVATION NOTES ON THE CLARKE SCHOOL.

DISMISSING any question of methods, so far as the oral or manual method or the combined system is concerned, the Clarke School at Northampton, Massachusetts, yet fulfills many conditions which make of it a model school.

It is fortunate in its location; in its means of support and freedom from political control; in its unique system of management; in the uniformity of its methods; and in sustaining a teaching corps who have been trained uniformly. The school has a distinctively home feeling pervading it, more than is often possible in larger schools for the deaf.

When the carriage stops at the brow of the hill on a quiet street, arched and shaded by the elms of old New England, one feels at first only the quiet and cool restfulness of the place. Later, when he has had time to look about him and in the fresh morning has glanced eastward, there below stretches out to the south the valley of the Connecticut river, and above it rises the Holyoke range of hills. These present ever varying changes as the seasons come and go and as sun or moon cast shadows over and among them. This is the Northampton which Holmes has described in an opening chapter of "Elsie Venner."

When we learn that in one of the quaintest of the buildings here Bancroft the historian once had a school for boys, and that here he began to write his histories, and when we are told that Jennie Lind at one time stopped still further down the street, while on a visit, we feel that the historical environment is not far behind the natural setting. This circumstance furnishes not only material for pupils who are studying geography, but also for their deeper appreciation of history.

If the class is to be taught about a mountain the child-

ren are taken for a trolley ride to Mount Tom, a pleasant hour's distance. If it is a river they are studying they go to the Connecticut bridge. Valley, meadow, and hill, factory and silk mill, are all in evidence whenever the occasion demands.

If the children are studying the Revolutionary War, enough of them have been to Boston to make many of the scenes of that epoch in our history real to them. It is thus an easy matter to correlate geography and history in the Clarke School.

The school is supported by an endowment fund which was left it by Mr. Clarke, after whom it is named. As Massachusetts has no State institution for the deaf, it sends many of its pupils here and pays \$250 *per capita*. This is more than \$30 less than the actual cost, however. Pupils from States outside of New England pay \$300.

Those connected with the school are not apprehensive after each election of losing their positions, but they move on regardless of politics and its prejudices, thus insuring to the school long terms of excellent management.

The buildings at present accommodate only about one hundred and fifty pupils. These are divided into three groups or homes. The primary children, comprising those taking first, second, and preparatory third-year work, form one group; the intermediate, from the third to the sixth grades, inclusive, are another, and the so-called grammar children are the third.

There are about five classes in the primary division, and every pupil is required to stay in this division until he has completed the work assigned, which in some cases may take five years.

The classes are small, never more than ten and oftener less. This is because the school is small, for the principal does not object to larger classes if they are well graded.

Each department occupies a building by itself; each

has its own dining-room and dormitories for boys and girls; each building has a separate matron and supervisors. There are no less than nine of the latter, all told, and there are less than one hundred and fifty pupils.

Admission is granted according to age. The applications lie until the latter part of August and the oldest pupils are admitted first. There is no other standard of selection. Miss Yale does not "pick her pupils," as many have supposed from the results obtained. After a certain date no pupils are admitted except under rare circumstances. The entering classes are thus permitted to finish the year's work uninterrupted by the entrance of new pupils coming in at all times. The results at the end of the year are much better than they can possibly be when entirely undisciplined pupils are imposed upon a class who have already had several months of school work.

The normal students assist much in working up backward and slow pupils as a part of their practice teaching.

The work of each home or group is directed by a head teacher. All of the teachers in the school have been trained by the principal, who keeps so in touch with the work of each class as to take charge herself if a teacher is absent. She also directs to an extent at all times the work in each department.

The thing which impresses a visitor most in the children, aside from their neatness of appearance, is their remarkably good manners and courtesy. The teachers sit at the table with their classes and are thus enabled to aid their pupils in acquiring gentle habits and in directing their conversation. It is required of the boys from the third grade up to rise when a lady enters the room and to remain standing until she is seated.

Of course as this school is one of purely oral methods, speech is insisted upon at all times. All of the supervisors are expected to speak to the children and to demand speech in return. It is needless to say that the

results thus obtained are more valuable, as far as speech and lip-reading are concerned, than if the pupils used their speech only a few hours in the schoolroom.

The hours of school work in the primary department are from 9 to 11.45 and from 1.30 to 3.30. In the case of very young classes these hours are shortened.

The language methods used are a combination of the "natural" and the "systematic"; the former being used as far as practicable. "The object of the first year is to give the child natural language to cover his thoughts" and simple needs. All language, with slight exception, is understood upon the lips and spoken before the written form is given.

Some of the language drills used are as follows :

In the primary and intermediate grades—

1. Nouns from objects.
2. Action work.
3. Journals.
4. Topics.
5. Letters (which are written once every week but sent home only once in two weeks).
6. Conjugation of verbs in the declarative, negative, and interrogative forms.
7. Questions on objects.
8. Questions on stories.
9. Reading charts.
10. Story reproduction. (Story told.)
11. Blanks in sentences for verbs, pronouns, special words, and phrases.
12. Drill on "Ask, Say, and Tell."

In the grammar department—

1. Reproduction of short stories (usually read by pupils).
2. Biographical sketches from reading.
3. Topics from reading.
4. Construction of sentences on words and phrases.

5. Business letter forms, notes of invitation, etc.
6. Abstracts of books (stories).
7. Technical grammar.
8. Themes.

The past tense is given first because it more often seems to present the truth to the child. Such verbs as *to like, to love, to have, to be*, etc., are used in the present.

In the first year all three tenses have been given and drilled upon in conjugation. The present, progressive, and interrogative forms come in the second year.

In the third year drill is given in conjugating two verbs together, as, *went to walk, wanted to look*, etc.

In the fourth year participial nouns are given; drill in the passive voice and special drill on the present tense, contrasting the present with the present progressive.

In the fifth year rules are given for using *when, if, while*, and *as*, and the perfect tenses are taught.

In the second year question forms and reading charts are the chief features.

In the third year arithmetic and geography are begun. Direct work on "Ask, Say, and Tell" has a regular period on the programme of each day, as did the verbs *to be* and *to have* in the first year.

Conjugation work is begun in the first year. This has been criticised by some, but it is found that the children like it and learn to do it readily. There can be no doubt as to the benefit of learning the correct forms from the very beginning.

The five-column system is used more or less in the various grades at the discretion and in the judgment of each teacher. At the close of the year hektograph books are made and sent home with each pupil, containing the work of the year, not always each day's lessons, but the suggestive work which the pupils should remember. These are returned in the autumn following, and thus the new teacher is able to see just where the children were at the close of the previous term.

These books are preserved, and when a pupil goes from one department to the next, his books are taken over with him, thus enabling him to keep records of each year he has spent in school.

In most of the classes the seats are arranged in a semi-circle; failing that, the chairs at recitation time are arranged in a half-circle, making it easy to see the teacher's face and to read her lips. In the five primary classes below the third grade there are no desks used, but primary tables and chairs.

An interesting exercise in questions in the first year is for a pupil to hide some object and the teacher to ask—

“How many are there?”

The pupil answers “One.”

“What color is it?”

“Blue and white.”

“Is it pretty?”

“Yes.”

“Is it soft.”

“No.”

“Is it small?”

“Yes.”

“Is it a ball?”

“No.”

“Where is it?”

“On a table.”

“Is it a cup?”

“Yes.”

In the second year the teacher hides some article and the pupils ask the questions.

Much drill is given in filling in blanks after this fashion:

Mary — a ball.

Above the blank is written *to have*, and the pupils supply the correct form of that verb.

(to have)

Mary — a ball.

Or—

Mary — to walk (by and by).

Either the words *by and by* are written or the Wing symbol is used.

In the third year the teacher has an interesting device for teaching "Ask, Say, and Tell." On brightly colored cards, pictures of birds, animals, or children are pasted and below are such sentences as these:

One bird said to the other, "Is the bug good to eat?"

The bug said to the birds, "Please do not touch me."

The pupils are required to change the conversation into "One bird asked the other if the bug was good to eat. The bug told the birds not to touch it," etc.

A clay map in a zinc-lined table is a valuable addition to the geography work. A sand-table is sometimes used. With the clay map rivers, mountains, etc., can be moulded. Pins and a string are used for boundary lines and tooth-picks stuck in with names pasted on them designate States. The tooth-picks are withdrawn and pupils told to replace them in the correct States.

For map drawing, the New England States are traced and hektographed on heavy manila paper. These States are cut apart and kept separate in envelopes. The pupils are required to put them together again. When they can do this well they are allowed to draw the map, first tracing and later drawing without this aid.

In this department when the pupils or teacher come across the picture of a famous man or event it is cut out and brought to the schoolroom. These pictures are pasted upon manila charts and the person or the event is talked about and later can be referred to by the pictures. There are charts full of pictures which are classified and indexed. Thus:

Picture of St. Peter's on page 5.

Picture of Longfellow on page 6, etc.

Then there are pictures unmounted, indexed, and classified to assist in teaching new words. For instance, if a new word like "croquet" comes up, the teacher goes to the portfolio and looks for *c* and finds a picture illustrating that game. There is a whole set of pictures illustrating the verbs used in Miss Sweet's language books. These books are the basis of language teaching in the 3d, 4th, and 5th grades.

When a lesson is to be taught like the one about frying pan-cakes and for a joke putting a piece of flannel into one, the class go down to the kitchen, send one member out of the room while the cakes are being made, and play the joke on him.

In the grammar grades there is one hour a week given to an exercise called "Miscellaneous questions in review." The teacher has the class copy in note-books about fifty questions on all subjects. For instance—

"What is a quadratic equation?"

"Explain Time and Tides,"

and anything the class have learned or should have known. The teacher never tells anything about the answers. The pupils must find the answers for themselves. The teacher corrects these, stopping at the first mistake, and crediting six or eight right, as the case may be.

The "*Chart Story*" is begun in the second year as a preface to reading proper. For a few moments each day a story is given which has been written on a chart, either printed in large type or written with a rubber pen. This story need not be language which the children have had, but it must be so simple that the idea can be gotten from the context. These stories are also separate from the language-drill stories. The chart story generally has some point to it, which is not always explained, and after the children have read the story once, and have been asked questions upon it to draw out their understanding, it is no longer drilled upon, but a new story is given them at the next lesson.

Here is a very simple example :

The Pigs.

Two cunning little pigs lived in a pen. One morning they felt very hungry. Soon a little boy came to the pen. He had three red apples. He threw them to the pigs. What do you think the pigs did?

After these, printed stories from newspapers, children's pages, etc., are cut out and pasted in blank books. These are used as the first library books. Later the children are given more advanced books, and an hour each Sunday is spent in asking questions or having the children write reproductions of the books they have read. To stimulate interest those who do the best work are given a party during the winter, and this affair is conducted on the principles of a "grown-up" party.

The children are directed for two hours on Sundays. For one hour in the intermediate and grammar grades, the head teacher or principal have the children in charge for the Sunday lesson. The other hour is spent with their teachers in library work and in the primary department in nature study. Clay modelling, drawing, brush work, and free-hand cutting are all employed to represent the subjects under discussion—leaves, plants, or animal life.

The pupils all attend regular church services in the town and the principal conducts chapel exercises for the older pupils each Sunday.

On Saturday afternoon the Catholic children are given lessons in the catechism by the broad-minded women who are at the head of this school. This instruction is given with the sanction of the priest.

A very valuable acquisition which some of the teachers possess is the "red-lined" edition of the Bible. Words in the Bible are so underlined in red ink as to form simple sentences easily understood by the deaf, and many

phrases unnecessary to the thought can thus be omitted in reading.

Manual training work consist chiefly in sloyd lessons for the younger pupils and some shop work in cabinet-making and wood-carving for the older boys. The girls are taught sewing by the supervisors and assist in the dining-room. The girls also learn wood-carving. All pupils care for their own rooms. Some of the children have private rooms just large enough for a bed, a table, a chair, and a closet for their clothes.

The gymnasium building is a beautiful gift from some relatives of one of the pupils. It is modern and well equipped. The classes are given regular lessons in calisthenics and all commands are given by speech. It is remarkable how quickly and how well even the youngest ones learn to execute the commands given. The director, who is trained in medical gymnastics, gives special lessons to deficient pupils, and while helping them physically they are awakened mentally.

The school until recently has had one vacation period during the term—a week was given in February. The majority of the grammar children would go home and the other children remain at the school in charge of the head teachers and supervisors.

Now there are two rest periods. At Christmas ten days are given and three at Easter. On Thursdays the school is open to visitors.

Oral schools are criticised because speech is often made the aim at the sacrifice of mental development. In the Clarke School mental development is the aim reached through language, and this by means of speech and writing—speech because it is a helpful medium and an aid in the very development sought, and writing because this is the standard by which, as we must all concede, our work in any method is to be tested.

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THE EDUCATION OF DEAF-BLIND CHILDREN IN THE NEW YORK INSTITUTION FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB

To the Editor of the Annals.

SIR The following was prepared for me under the direction of Mr. Joseph Henry Currier, Principal of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, for a new edition of "The Deaf Blind" that I am bringing out, but it seems, even to my non-pedagogic mind, too vast

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CHAMBERS,

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one blind person can be taught

hands, she could teach six; but making two, she teaches three."

give you, in detail, the work a work will, I think, in a measure be a part of themselves of the idea that only a time. If Miss Barrager had us

To obtain a comprehensive idea of what may appear an anomalous condition in the system of instruction employed with the blind-deaf at the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb—a system which gives one teacher the care of several blind-deaf children—it will be well to review the inception and progress of this branch of instruction at this school.

On the sixth of February, 1871, there entered the Institution an entirely uneducated nonverbal deaf-mute boy named James H. Caton. He was then ten years of age. In the fall of 1874, after having been nearly three years in school, he had the misfortune to contract a severe illness, in consequence of which he became totally blind. In his recovery, during which nearly a year of schooling was lost, the attempt was made to carry on his education

in connection with one of the regular classes, the teacher of which gave him some special attention, supplementing his work by means of monitors. This plan was, however, found to be of detriment to his classmates, and was not fully satisfactory in its effects upon the boy himself.

The deep interest felt in his case by one of the teachers, Miss Bessie V. FitzHugh, led her to request permission to undertake his instruction. She was installed in her new duties on the 27th of December, 1876. In order to qualify herself for that special portion of her work which was involved in the inability of her pupil to see, she made frequent visits to the New York Institution for the Blind, and received the peculiar instruction and aid she needed from the courteous and able superintendent of that Institution, William B. Wait, Esq., and also from some of his assistants.

Caton made great advancement in the comprehension and use of the English language, in arithmetic, and in the knowledge of the history of the United States. He performed examples in written arithmetic by means of the metallic slate-frame and type figures. He read books printed in raised letters and communications made by the New York Point and, with the aid of the grooved writing board, wrote on paper. In geography, as might be expected, he encountered great difficulties, as the relative position and extent of oceans and continents, the configuration of countries, the location of mountains, and the course of rivers could not, at first, be made clear to his mind. With the aid of raised maps and maps which could be dissected, however, this difficulty was finally overcome.

But the principal instrument used in his instruction was the manual alphabet, by means of which questions and sentences were spelled in his hand by the hand of the teacher. He himself used the alphabet in reply. Every error that he made in language or form of expres-

sion was at once corrected, and his sentences were often recast so as to make them idiomatic. Wherever there was a word or phrase of the meaning of which he was ignorant, his teacher explained it to him by periphrasis, or by taking his hands and making the signs with which deaf-mutes are generally familiar and which he used freely in his conversations with them. This is a very common mode of communication between our blind-deaf pupils and the pupils who converse with them, or who act as interpreters at the public gatherings.

The success met with in the case of Caton led to the passage of a resolution by the Board of Directors, by which the Institution was opened to such other blind-deaf as might be found in need of instruction. As a result, early in the year 1878, two classmates, laboring under similar deprivations, began to share with Caton the attention of his teacher. One of these, Stanley Robinson, a boy of twelve, from New Jersey, lost his hearing at the age of seven. His sight at the same time became so impaired that he could see objects only when they were brought very near to him, and later he became totally blind. Robinson had learned to read primary books before becoming deaf, and had retained the power of speech, though this had become very indistinct. He was, however, unable to write. Within a year he learned to read orally books of a higher order than those to which he had been accustomed, and to recite orally simple lessons in history and geography. He was also taught to write a legible hand, and thus became able to prepare simple compositions. His voice was greatly improved, and his pronunciation became clearer and more correct; as with Caton, the manual alphabet was the most frequent mode of communication with him.

The other was Richard S. Clinton, a boy twelve years of age, who had neither hearing nor sight, possessed no knowledge whatever of language, and had no idea of the

appearance of the objects around him. Unlike Caton and Robinson, he had not the advantage of a fixed conception of the outer world, nor of a partial knowledge of language gained before sight became extinct. The development of his mind, therefore, presented problems of greater difficulty, and made more frequent demands upon the ingenuity of the teacher.

The first steps employed with him were similar to those then pursued with the seeing deaf. Twelve objects, the names of which taken together contained all the letters of the alphabet, were associated in his mind with descriptive signs made by the teacher, with the boy holding her hands, so that, soon, when she directed his hand to an object, he was able to make the appropriate gesture, and, when she made the gesture, he was able to point out the object. Then he was taught to spell, with letters of the manual alphabet, the name of each object when it was presented to him, and to take up the object when the teacher spelled the name with her hand in his. From this, the teacher proceeded to give him simple directions, addressed to him at first by signs, and obeyed by him, and afterward spelled by the fingers. For instance, "Bring the hat;" the boy would then do as he was directed and, after the direction had been repeated in connection with all the other objects, he came to be entirely familiar with this simple form of words. The question, "What did you do?" was then explained to him. After a repetition of direction and his performance thereof, he was taught to reply, "I brought the hat," "I brought the box," and so on. Other verbs were then taught in the same way.

He was next taught to read the names of the objects through touch, with the aid of an enlarged script alphabet made by driving spherical-headed tacks into blocks of wood in such a way as to form a single letter on each block. The blocks were then combined so as to form one

of the words he had learned, and he was taught the correspondence of these tangible letters with the letters of the manual alphabet. He was then trained to write upon the blackboard, a comparatively easy task, after he had become familiar with the shape of the letters through the exercise just detailed.

Gradually the number in the class increased until it included five pupils, four boys and one girl, whose vision was partially or wholly extinct. The girl was Martha E. Morehouse, of Newark, New Jersey, who was admitted to the Institution in September, 1879. She had been able to hear to the age of eight, and her speech remained with remarkable distinctness. However, she could neither read nor write, and attention was at once directed to the removal of these deficiencies. After a while she became able to read, by the touch, words printed in raised letters, and to follow words spelled in her hand by the manual alphabet. She also mastered writing with the pencil, and used the sign language with easy facility in conjunction with the manual alphabet.

Miss FitzHugh retired in February, 1880, and the class was placed temporarily under two male teachers. In May, 1880, upon the suggestion of Professor Carrier, the type-writer was introduced as an instrument likely to prove of value in the instruction of this special class of pupils, and it has ever since remained an important aid in their education.

In 1883 the class had been increased to six pupils, three of whom had no vision and three had vision impaired. The boys were under the instruction of Mr. William G. Jones and the girl, Morehouse, under the care of Miss Josephine F. Rintoul. Morehouse remained until the removal of the New Jersey State pupils to the new school opened in that State, at Trenton, when she was transferred. The class was then confined to the two blind-deaf boys, Caton and Clinton, and placed under the in-

struction of Mr. Thomas F. Fox. Caton was now advanced to the regular High Class course, which he pursued successfully for three years, and graduated with honor. Clinton reached a course equal to the fourth class, and was then placed under the special care of Miss Jane T. Meigs, with whom he remained until his term expired.

In the fall of 1890 Kate McGirr, then twelve years of age, came to the school. She had become blind and deaf two years previously from exposure to the blizzard of 1888, and upon being assigned to the class taught by Miss Meigs she evinced a quickness of perception and an interest in the acquisition of knowledge that held out great promise for the future. The first means of instruction employed with her were the manual alphabet and Moon's alphabet for the blind; in time she was trained in the use of the typewriter, the metallic slate-frame and type figures, and the dissected maps.

Meanwhile, at the Mansion House, set aside for the instruction of the male juvenile classes, there was a little blind-deaf boy, who had been admitted as a pupil in September, 1889. This was Orris Beuson. He became blind and deaf from an attack of cerebro-spinal meningitis at the age of three years, and being, on his entrance to the school, a child of eight, and without any instruction, he was placed with the smaller boys under Mr. Charles W. VanTassell. His instruction was commenced with the enlarged alphabet, already described, and followed very generally the same lines employed with Clinton, with the addition that Miss Meigs gave daily instruction in speech. When he arrived at the age and strength suitable for removal to the Academic building, he was placed under Miss Ida Montgomery for instruction in language, arithmetic, history of the United States, geography, and manners and morals. To these branches he devoted half a day, the remainder of the school day being given to learning speech from Miss Bessie L. Nixon.

Catharine Pederson came to the Institution, at the age of fifteen, from the New York Institution for the Blind, where she had been a pupil for two years. She became blind at the age of eight, and, losing her hearing at thirteen, while at the school for the blind, she was returned to her home, being regarded as unfitted for longer continuance at that school. After a lapse of three years, she was received at this Institution, in October, 1900, and is now well advanced, with good mentality, and is one of the leaders of the class.

The youngest pupil in the blind-deaf class now under instruction is Ella Hopkins, a girl of fifteen, who became deaf and almost wholly blind at the age of seven, from an attack of scarlet fever. She had received some instruction in the public school at her home city, Utica, New York, and was for four years a pupil at the Central New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes, at Rome. She came to us in September, 1903, and is making gratifying progress.

Of the eight doubly afflicted pupils briefly sketched in the preceding record, four are at this date pupils at the Institution, viz., Katie McGirr, Orris Benson, Catharine Pederson, and Ella Hopkins, who receive instruction in all branches, except speech, from Miss Myra L. Barrager, and in speech and reading from Miss F. G. S. Smith. Outside the classroom they mingle freely with the other pupils, and through the manual alphabet, and signs when necessary, they enter fully into the life and enjoyments of the daily routine of school and work, and are the happiest members of our large family.

Having presented an outline of the various blind-deaf children who have been educated at this Institution during the past thirty years, in which period one or more blind-deaf children have been under instruction, it remains to describe the manner in which several such children are taught at the same time by one or two teachers. And first, it is proper to speak of the qualifi-

tions of the teachers upon whom so much depends for the success of this work. Miss Barrager, through whose love and devotion these pupils have been brought to a high standard of proficiency in study, received her training as a teacher in this Institution through years of patient experience. Deaf herself from the age of four, she has given this special branch of instruction her most earnest thought and attention, and came to it after a long apprenticeship in the most difficult department of deaf-mute instruction—the primary. She was for seventeen years the leading teacher in the female primary department before the kindergarten system was introduced, and had full opportunity to analyze the undeveloped mentality which lies dormant in the uneducated congenitally deaf child. In addition to this she brings to her work the zeal flowing from affectionate sympathy with and devotion to the welfare of her charges. The results of her work under such conditions, very naturally, have been most successful.

Miss Smith, who has the difficult task of teaching speech and correcting the faults of pronunciation and attending to the oral reading exercises, is an oral teacher of ripe experience, and imbued with a patient, gentle firmness that makes a difficult branch pleasant and interesting as well as profitable to the pupils.

To begin with Monday morning, in the first period of 15 minutes, Orris goes to Miss Smith for instruction in speech and, during that time, speaks almost constantly. Meanwhile Katie, Catharine, and Ella are with Miss Barrager. Katie and Catharine write their weekly journals on their typewriters, and Ella has her arithmetic lesson; sometimes mental work is performed, and at other times the American slate for the blind is used.

In the second period Ella goes to Miss Smith. In speech Miss Smith does not devote much time to single elements, but spells to her pupils and they speak to her. In this way they have read a number of books and many short arti-

cles. Katie, Catharine, and Orris sit at a small table with Miss Barrager to have an arithmetic lesson together. Miss Barrager spells to the girls, and Katie spells to Orris, thus completing the circle, and all reading the teacher's instruction simultaneously. Slates are used in working out problems, and the three have races to finish the work first.

In the third period Catharine takes her turn in speech with Miss Smith. In correcting pronunciation Miss Smith spells phonetically, but impresses on the pupil that this form is for speech only. Ella studies geography, Katie gives her time to mythology, while Orris recites his physiology lesson to Miss Barrager. The fourth period finds Katie with Miss Smith, who requires all the pupils to remember the elements, when to give voice, and when not; but occasionally a combination occurs when it becomes necessary for them to put their fingers on her throat and lips, and thus feel the word. Orris is now writing his weekly journal, Catharine is studying United States government, and Ella is reciting geography to Miss Barrager. Thus the forenoon is completed.

In the first hour of the afternoon Miss Barrager reads to the girls with her hands, one each in Ella's and Katie's, the latter repeating to Catharine what Miss Barrager is reading. After the reading, they are required to reproduce the exercise just given, using their typewriters. Benson, meanwhile, is in the trade school, where he works every afternoon, except at the hours when he is exercising in the gymnasium.

The second hour is divided into three parts. In the first, Katie recites mediæval history, Catharine recites government of the United States, and Ella history of the United States, in rotation; while one is reciting, the others are studying. The third hour is passed in sewing by the girls, while Miss Barrager is engaged on Braille work, preparing lessons or selections from English literature.

On Tuesday, in the first period, Orris goes to Miss Smith, who varies the exercises by conversations on current events. Readings in Braille are also practiced. With Miss Barrager, Katie studies mediæval history, Catharine studies grammar, while Ella works in arithmetic. The second period Ella passes with Miss Smith, while Katie, Orris, and Catharine have a lesson in arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

In the third period Catharine is with Miss Smith, Katie prepares a composition on some subject from mythology, Ella studies geography, and Orris recites modern history to Miss Barrager.

The fourth period, Katie passes the time with Miss Smith, Catharine studies English history, Orris works at grammar, and Ella recites geography to Miss Barrager.

In the afternoon, in the first period, Catharine and Ella have original work in composition, and Katie recites mediæval history.

In the second period Katie is engaged at grammar, Catharine recites English history in the first half hour, and in the second gives place to Ella, who recites history of the United States.

On Wednesday, in the forenoon, during the first period, Orris is with Miss Smith in speech. Catharine studies government of the United States, Katie studies mythology, Ella works at arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

In the second period, while Ella is reciting to Miss Smith, Orris, Katie, and Catharine have turns in arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

The rest of the day is devoted to letter writing, each pupil writing several letters. If they have finished by three o'clock the girls spend the extra hour in sewing, while Miss Barrager looks over their papers and prepares Braille work.

On Thursday, in the first period, while Orris is with Miss Smith, Katie and Catharine write compositions, and Ella spends the time at arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

In the second period it is Ella's turn with Miss Smith, and Katie, Catharine, and Orris have arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

In the third period Katie studies mythology, Orris writes a composition, Ella recites geography to Miss Barrager, and Catharine is having speech instruction from Miss Smith.

In the fourth period Orris recites physiology to Miss Barrager, Ella studies the history of the United States, Katie is practicing speech with Miss Smith, and Catharine writes out her lesson in government of the United States on the typewriter.

In the afternoon the first period is devoted to reading to the girls by Miss Barrager, after which they reproduce the reading in their own language on the typewriter.

The second period is divided into three portions, one of which, in rotation, is given to Katie's recitation in mediæval history, to Catharine in the history of England, and to Ella's recital of her lesson in the history of the United States.

The third period is given to a lesson in sewing.

On Friday during the first period Miss Barrager works with Ella at arithmetic, Katie is studying mediæval history, Catharine is studying English grammar, Orris is with Miss Smith.

In the second period Ella has speech with Miss Smith, and Orris, Catharine, and Katie have an exercise in arithmetic with Miss Barrager.

In the third period Catharine is with Miss Smith; meanwhile, in Miss Barrager's room, Katie is preparing an original composition, Ella is studying geography, and Orris is reciting modern history.

In the fourth period Katie recites to Miss Smith in speech, Catharine and Ella are typewriting original compositions, and Miss Barrager is reading to Orris, who later reproduces the reading, using the typewriter.

In the afternoon during the first hour a reading circle is formed : Miss Barrager reads, spelling into the hands of Ella and Katie, while Katie spells what is said into the hand of Catharine.

In the second hour all go to the Art Department for clay and wax modeling.

The third hour is given to a talk on manners and morals, followed by sewing ; in this general term is included instruction in plain sewing, knitting, and fancy work—the making of needle-books, work-bags, and the like.

From the foregoing it will readily be understood that, with a definite system, which makes provision for a wise and proper distribution of the hours of class exercises, the teaching of several blind-deaf children by one or two teachers is not only possible, but can be accomplished without neglecting any fundamental requirement, the one essential being that the teacher is competent and has her heart in the work. Indeed, Miss Barrager, without any requirement so to do, but from pure love for her pupils, has not only given to the children individual care and direction in their literary studies, but has also directed them in acquiring a practical use of the needle and of knitting.

Where, as in this case, the teacher thoroughly understands her charges, as well as their needs, and enters into her work with a sympathetic, earnest spirit, she cannot fail to accomplish the gratifying results that are exhibited in the acquirements and attainments of the blind-deaf pupils at present under instruction in this Institution.

LANGUAGE THROUGH THE GRADES.

THERE are many devices by which a teacher may teach language in the primary department. Perhaps the first lesson would be what is called the "tag exercise." Attach tags to a number of objects on which in large plain letters the name of the objects is written. These tags are then reproduced with the same handwriting, in sufficient numbers to furnish one set of tags for each pupil. When the pupils are all provided with their packages of tags, which at first contain but five or six tags apiece, the teacher speaks the word, then shows the tag upon which the word is written, and now the pupil looks for the tag bearing the same characters, and then hastens to discover the object bearing the same word on the tag. As soon as the child speaks the word, he points to it on the blackboard (all of the words on the tags should be written upon the board), and finally writes it. When the class is familiar with a few words and objects, new tags and new objects are added, and before many weeks the pupil will no longer need the tags, but will have become sufficiently advanced in lip-reading to select the object by simply watching the teacher's mouth.

A set of charts (pictures) are invaluable in this room. Pictures of boys, girls, babies, and every kind of object (animals, etc.), are pasted upon these large, stiff cards, and as the name of the object is given by the teacher, the child reads her lips, pronounces the name, and points to its picture. Then, as the child advances, the teacher gives the whole sentence, "Show me a baby," etc., to the child. The child points to the baby and says, "That is a baby," so as to impress the idea of language in a sentence on his mind. Commands are given by the teacher: "Go," "Come," "Jump," etc., and the child, after going through the motions, says: "I walk," "I go," etc., or "We walk,"

"We wash," etc. The teacher gives commands also to separate pupils, as: "Arnold, walk," "Walter, jump," etc. The writing of the command, or "I go," "I walk," etc., should always be a part of the exercise. Commands, such as "Get the book," etc., may soon be taught, and the child, after performing the action, says, "I got the book," and writes the sentence on the blackboard. Language should be used as often as possible during the day. Let the child express his wants by speech: "May I get some water?" "May I go home?" etc. All these every-day sentences should be printed upon a chart and drilled upon. These reading charts should always be illustrated as much as possible. When a sentence is upon the chart about a certain object, the picture of the object should be close at hand upon the same page. All these every-day sentences mentioned above should be placed upon the board, where they will be constantly before the children's eyes. Of course the short sentences, "I come," "Good-morning," etc., are taught previously to the longer ones.

Lessons on color may be given with objects of different color, or with reference to things about the room of various shades. The teacher asks the color of the different objects, and the child answers her questions in complete sentences. Or the child may take an object in his hand—for instance, a red apple—and after the teacher asks, "What have you?" he replies, "I have a red apple." Many different forms of sentences may be taught in which color can be included. In the dictation of little sentences the child may form an idea of their structure, and so it is of value in a language way. Another interesting exercise for the child is to have the teacher put several objects in her apron. The child then selects an object, hides it behind him, and when the teacher says, "What have you?" he says, "I have a cow," or whatever the animal or object may be. Plurals may be used in this exercise. It is well for the children to ask each other questions as soon as

possible, and it can be done as soon as a sentence is learned. Many variations may be tried in this exercise just described, and color may be introduced again in the questions and answers given. Number may also be used in this connection.

Another exercise which is of interest to the children is the following: The teacher hides many familiar objects about the room, the children hunt for them, and as soon as an object is found the child finding it goes to the teacher and tells what he has found or what he has. As soon as he has told her let him start off for another hunt, and so on. If there are many, many objects hidden, the interest is kept up, and a good deal of talking may be done by the children. After the exercise is concluded, each child may give a list of all the objects he has found, and then write them in a sentence on the board.

Games are an endless source of amusement to children, and may be made, I think, a great means of teaching language to them. Almost all of the kindergarten games can be used in the schoolroom of the deaf child. The children can represent the different things which they were playing about, and state every step in language that was taken. I will not speak of the details of these games, but only of their great value and interest to the child in this general way.

From the study of language with the little folks we now pass on to the higher departments of a deaf school, and look into the different devices which a teacher may employ in her lessons of conversation and composition. One of the standard subjects of conversation throughout a school is that of general questions. They relate to the name, age, and sex of the pupils, where they live, where they were born, how old they are, how many eyes they have, etc., according to the grade of the child, and in the higher rooms general questions of a more difficult order, including politics, history, geography, or anything relat-

the
 have
 g which
 r will find
 or instance,
 new dress?"
 ice for conver-
 lowing: Let the
 illie to go out of
 ph says, "Willie, go
 r." While he is gone
 a pupil or the teacher,
 teacher (the child out of
 ned by another pupil) says,
 he desk?" or whatever it was
 s absence. Then Joe guesses,
 pple in the box," and so on until
 Then another child leaves the room,
 e introduced and other forms of sen-

rsation lesson may consist in having one
 teacher, or a visitor, sit in a chair in
 lass, and questions may be asked in regard
 hair, clothes, etc.

cher suggests providing the children with pic-
 s containing pictures of animals in action. Each
 ay tell what some animal is doing, and write his
 ce on the board. A box of magnetic fishes would
 interest to the child, and a profitable conversation
 l be had on the fishes while in the water. A jointed
 is a good topic of conversation. The teacher per-
 s the actions for the doll—that is, moves its arms,
 es it walk, turns its head, etc., and the children de-
 e the actions. Different objects may be placed in
 of the class, and questions and answers be given in
 rd to them. On a certain day the children may ask

questions of the teacher or of each other ; on another day the children may tell something, and again the teacher may give commands to the child or the child may give commands to the other pupils. This plan may be adopted through all the rooms, of course always advancing and making the work more difficult. After obeying the command, the child always states what he accomplishes, or tells what another pupil accomplished. Many games may be used in this younger grade also which will be very instructive as well as entertaining.

Books may be made out of stiff paper, on each page of which is pasted a picture. The children write a description of the picture on each page (as the pages are made large enough to admit of writing), and the child may have the pleasure of taking them home. As soon as the children are old enough, journals should be introduced which are composed of the things told by the pupils during the week. These are taken home, and recited another day by the children. As they grow older the journals are written at home and brought to school. These journals tell of the child's home or school life, or anything in which he is interested.

Action work and conversation have been tried by some teachers. A list of verbs is written on the board, and each child gives a sentence containing one of the verbs and performs the action, and children describe the actions of the others as well as their own. A package may be done up by the teacher, and questions are asked by the pupils until the object is guessed. This is a good way to bring out spontaneity of thought from the child.

Sentences may be written on strips of cardboard, cut up, and the children may put them together, reading the sentence as soon as completed. A single word of good length, with which the child is familiar, may be written upon the board, and the children may make as many words as possible out of it, each one reading his list when

completed, and afterwards making sentences containing their list of words. A box of anagrams may be made useful by the children in composing questions and answers.

"Color in nature" may be used as a topic of conversation, mentioning the color of different things in nature in sentences with or without the objects present. An exercise given quite early in the morning, in which the teacher gives commands concerning things which are to be done every morning, is helpful, and after the child performs the action he tells what he has done. For instance, the teacher says, "You may wind the clock," "Please wind the clock," etc. Different children may be asked to bring something to school, and then the next day when they appear with the object it is discussed by questions and answers, or written up for composition. Some animal may be taken as a subject of conversation and talked about, or one child may have in his mind a certain animal, and the children by their questions may discover the animal chosen. The same may be done with an object or person which the child or teacher may have in mind.

For a conversation lesson let the children describe their walks to school, what they saw, etc., or tell what they saw while out at recess. Color, form, material, size, and comparison of objects may be used in conversation, and can be made very attractive. Flowers and birds may be used in a conversational way, and also for compositions. Lessons on the senses may be made entertaining. Let the children taste different things, and describe the taste, also the smell of flowers, etc. Let there be lessons in comparison; for instance, as to the size of two objects. Games of all kinds in which conversation occurs may be used throughout all the rooms. A picture may be held, face downward, before the children, turned suddenly, and then described by the children repeatedly, until the objects in the picture are exhausted, and then they may tell everything that they saw, from the first time it was turned

Finally, we come to the conclusion of our subject in the grammatical side of it. I need not describe Miss Barry's five-column method, as it is well known to the readers of the *Annals*. Different devices may be given to the children in order to obtain the correct forms of sentences which contain the words, "yes," "no," "if," "how," "why," "some," etc. Sentences with blanks may be given to the children, to be filled out with "have" or "has," as the case may be. Sentences may be given in the present tense, and changed into the past and future by the children. Sentences may be given to be filled out, as the following: "Is there —?" "Are there —?" "Have you seen —?" "Have you been —?" "Are you going —?" "Were you going —?" "Where are you going —?" "Where did —?" The different tenses may be taught simply with a picture. For instance, let it be a picture of some boys wading in the water. This represents the *present*. Others are putting on their shoes. They *have* waded, so this represents the *past* tense. Other boys are seen coming toward the water. They *will* bathe, and so represent the *future* tense. The different forms of sentences, etc., may be obtained from the text-book used in the school.

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THE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING OF THE DEAF.

In the schoolroom the principal object of the teacher is the proper training of the faculties, so that pupils in later life may develop harmonious and well-furnished minds. In the industrial training of the deaf the forming of habits of industry, carefulness, and skill in the performance of duties should be paramount to attempts to impart a thorough knowledge of a trade in the limited time allowed the pupils.

Some might argue that this could be accomplished by putting the department on a kindergarten basis. I do not wish to be understood as advocating a lack of effort to give as thorough a knowledge of a trade as possible, but of the two, love of work and the ability to do thorough work, coupled with a limited knowledge of a good trade, is preferable to more extensive knowledge of details performed in a desultory and inartistic manner. Circumstances may prevent a pupil's following the trade he has worked at in school, but if he has been taught to be industrious, and has developed a habit of mind that prompts him to do well the work he has performed, these qualities will tend to make him successful in whatever employment he attempts after he leaves school.

How best to develop these qualities in the pupils, and at the same time give them as extensive a knowledge of their trades as possible, is a problem which must be solved, if we are to place our pupils on the road to industrial independence. Experiment teaches us much, but time is often wasted in poorly conceived experiments to solve a riddle, while others with better minds have already found a solution. Conscious of having no perfect system myself, and hoping that what follows may serve as suggestions to some, and perhaps draw out more perfect systems from others, I shall give some idea of my method of instruction, and a few impressions and experiences among those accumulated during seventeen years' employment as an instructor in the industrial department.

The two primary essentials in the successful conduct of this department are first-class instructors and ample material. An instructor should be one who has a thorough knowledge of the trade he undertakes to teach. If, in addition, he possesses the tact, discipline, and knowledge of a pedagogue, he will be still more valuable. It is useless to hope to accomplish much with insufficient

material. When appropriations are limited, it is better to spend the money in securing one first-class instructor and sufficient up-to-date material for one trade, than to establish several trades on a play-room basis with instructors whose qualifications prove to be little above those of good monitors. The number of pupils under one instructor must be limited, and one of the causes of starting several trades on a poor basis is to keep as many of the pupils as possible out of mischief during the hours not in school. Better to keep the surplus employed sweeping the yard, and doing it thoroughly, than put them at employment where they are sure to form bad habits and get but a meagre knowledge of a trade.

I can best illustrate what I have to say by confining myself to one division of the industrial department. The printing division is selected because it has been the field of my activity, and I believe that no trade now taught the deaf excels that in opportunities for good manual training, and furnishing means for a life work. What may be said of this division will in many respects apply equally to others.

The love of the beautiful in most boys is so undeveloped that they have few compunctions in marring or destroying what gives pleasure to others, if they can gratify what some call the instinctive desire to investigate or learn the cause of things, or what others believe to be a purely wanton spirit of destructiveness. Orderly, cleanly, and beautiful environment is a corrective of the destructive tendency, and a potent factor in the development of taste. A boy will hesitate about scratching the polished surface of a new cabinet, but would think he had done nothing very wrong if he demolished a chair with one loose leg. The dingy, unpainted walls of a room become a good surface, not overlooked, for the exercise of caricature drawings and doubtful embellishments with printer's ink, but bright, clean surfaces are more respected. Even the most

Destructive are restrained by the appearance of the latter. Because any defacement is so glaring that investigation and punishment are more likely to result.

Lack of material order leads to disregard of the saying, "A place for everything, and everything in its place." There is no trade taught to which the quotation applies more forcibly than to printing. The material used comprises thousands of particulars arranged in series and groups, each in its place, and the whole arranged in a harmonious system. A lack of rigid enforcement of order would soon result in a whole office becoming a "hell box," the printer's most expressive synonym for the confusion of particulars.

It follows that the room should be made as attractive as possible. The furnishings should be arranged so as to present a good appearance, but not at the expense of utility or the proper fall of light. The whole should present such an aspect of cleanliness and order that a pupil will as instinctively doff his hat on entering as he would on going into the room of a private residence.

The mistake is often made of requiring too much work of a division. The fact is lost sight of that the room is intended for a place of instruction and not a workshop. Systematic instruction requires time and ample variety of work designed by the instructor along progressive lines. Supposing that the instructor is unhampered by overwork, and that the office is supplied with material to aid in giving instruction in all grades of composition and presswork, I will now approach more closely the method of teaching.

Boys enter the office at various ages, often as young as ten years. How to keep them interested in their work and prevent their getting into mischief when not employed, is one of the most vexatious problems of the instructor. The new instructor believes he has found a solution when he puts them at once at the case and notes

how eagerly they work ; how at opening time they are the pupils nearest the door, and at closing time they are the last to stop work. But the older instructor knows that this is the enthusiasm born of the discovery of a new amusement, of which the pupils weary as the novelty wears off.

I require new pupils to do the menial work, which from ages past has been the duty of the "devil." Whatever they do, be it sweeping, dusting, cleaning rollers and presses, setting up pi, or numerous other duties, they are watched and taught to do their work thoroughly. When several boys combined sweep the floor and one of them is careless, he receives a lasting lesson in thoroughness of work by being required again to sweep the whole office alone. Part of the time during their early days in the office the pupils are put at the case and given instruction in the rudiments of typesetting. At other times they are taught the names of material by means of the manual alphabet, or orally when possible. As a diversion they are permitted to look over trade magazines and pictures, or play games at a table.

After they have worked in the office some time I put them at work regularly at the case. The dignity aroused by their elevation is manifested in their bearing toward those to whom they resign their former duties. Each line of type set up by a pupil is inspected for errors, and instead of having them pointed out he is told the number and is required to find and correct them himself. A little raillery on several errors in a line, that provokes the amusement of the other pupils, often stirs up a determination to reduce the opportunities for further pleasantries. Praise for a well-set line arouses pride and a desire to do good work. After pupils have progressed sufficiently to be able to set up a stickful of type without inspection, the errors are marked on the proof. The slug number of each pupil shows the matter he has set, and the number of errors marked on that portion proves the excellence or

Poorness of his work. Here is another chance for raillery or praise. As the proof is inspected by many of the pupils, the one who has many errors is not spared by the ones who have done better. Of course the instructor must take into consideration the temperaments of the pupils. On some raillery produces an effect opposite to the one desired, and other means must be adopted to arouse them.

The principal things to be accomplished at the start are thoroughness and accuracy. For this reason I forbid all efforts at competition in speed. Setting of manuscript copy is the next step in the advancement of a pupil, and in order to furnish him a motive for the best possible work care must be taken not to advance him until he deserves it. The worker on manuscript copy has his incentive to keep up good work in a desire to prove himself worthy to be admitted to the job section. When he has entered that he has usually arrived at an age when he begins to think of the necessity of preparation for the future, a motive which is stimulated by the knowledge of the success of pupils who have secured work in the outer world.

Pupils at the time of entering the job section should be well grounded in the rudiments of the trade, and be good workers on straight composition. The degree of success of a pupil in the last section depends on the degree of his artistic temperament. If he lacks that temperament he is instructed in tabular work, imposition, and presswork, in addition to what he has learned of straight composition. If he has good taste it is the instructor's duty to develop his creative faculty. Good job work is the product of mental vision. The skillful printer can take a piece of copy and construct a mental picture of how the job will appear even before he starts to set the job. This mental vision is best developed by the study and analysis of good specimens of work. A printer must be familiar with the appearance of the printing surfaces of the material in

a shop. For that reason every office should have pamphlets containing specimens of all its printable material. The ground-work of mental vision can be started in early years by permitting pupils to examine trade magazines containing good specimens of both typographical and pictorial work. It is easy to detect the degree of taste in a pupil by asking him to make several selections that he admires from numerous specimens of advertisements and job work. Some will instinctively select those that are excellent in proportions and harmony of type display. Others will be more attracted by an advertisement in a country newspaper, because it contains a script line in a jumble of black-letter lines. It is not necessary to state that the former give more promise of being good subjects for job instruction than the latter.

The instructor of job composition must first develop the power of analysis in his pupils. While a pupil may be able to select from a lot of samples of printing only those deserving of merit, he cannot tell you why they are pleasing any more than the novice in art can explain what constitutes the excellence of a Rembrandt that he admires. The pupil must be taught how to analyze the work and learn what produces the effect. To begin with I give a pupil a piece of reprint job work or advertisement, request him to set it up and, if possible, produce something more artistic. His first attempts are poor specimens of work, as might be expected. I then have him set the job again, using my ideas of construction. The proof of the job as last set is generally in striking contrast to the first. By comparison of the two, and with the copy, I demonstrate the principles which go to make up good printing. Improvement follows, and some day one of his first proofs receives the "O. K." it deserves. That is the proudest day of his apprenticeship. From reset copy to manuscript is the next step. Copy for a job is written out and the display indicated as clearly as possi-

ble, leaving to the pupil the selection of type. Finally the copy is written as it generally appears when sent to printing offices by customers—that is, with little or no indication of what should be displayed. The pupil is required to double-underscore the primary and single-underscore the secondary lines or words that should be displayed, then make a draft of the job as he conceives it should appear in arrangement when set in type. When he learns the proper treatment of copy, and sets up a good job from it, the instructor's duty to him is over, and the pupil is prepared to compete with journeymen.

To give an explanation of my method of teaching press-work would extend this article over considerable space. The same thoroughness is insisted upon as in composition. The instruction comprises the care of presses and their accessories, preparation for running, different grades of make-ready for letter-press work, and the treatment of half-tones and other engravings; feeding, ink selection, harmony of contrast of colors, and also the care of paper stock and its cutting for jobs.

I believe that but few, if any, schools for the deaf in this country exceed that of Texas in the number of pupils who have received training in the industrial department and are now working at trades as wage-earners. But, should an attempt be made here to create the impression that we make experts of all pupils who enter the different divisions, I should expose myself to just condemnation. Our pupils vary in intelligence and capability as do those of other schools. Only those who are most intelligent and have a liking for their work make good subjects for development. An instructor should ascertain the capability of a pupil and, if he decides that the boy is better suited for farm than mechanical work, then suggest that he be removed from the shops. If a pupil is qualified to learn a trade and is indifferent about working at it, then the instructor must endeavor to create a liking.

Even if an instructor succeeds in securing a class wholly made up of promising pupils, he can hope to succeed in putting only a small number of them through the whole course of instruction. The reason is lack of time; the remedy, a post-graduate course of two or more years. If a deaf boy must wait until he is twenty-five before he is qualified to enter into competition with others, it would be to his advantage to do so. A larger number of competent workmen would be turned out if more pupils could be induced or compelled to take a post-graduate course. What operates against many of them doing so now is a feeling of self-sufficiency on the part of most pupils, a wish to break loose from school ties and assume the more independent position of wage-earner, or the desire of parents to have their sons contribute to the family income.

Perhaps in the future the success of those whom the schools turn out well trained may awaken a general desire for complete instruction. Let us hope so. Until then it is plainly our duty to be thorough in what we do teach, be it ever so little.

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SOME PHASES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT.

HERBERT SPENCER says that the philosopher points out relations in nature which we do not see; the poet shows us beauties which we do not recognize. The teacher must be both philosopher and poet all the time. In order to do this he must understand the workings of the child mind; he must know how the "manikin leads his way blind and wailing into the light of day."

Education is development; it is self-evolution. In the highest sense it teaches the child to control and develop

himself and to make an economical and wise use of all his powers ; to be a reasonable, sensible, useful, active, self-supporting, moral being ; to develop his own individuality and make the best possible use of his life.

Some one has said that it is "the function of education to direct the attention into the right channels." One psychologist calls the five senses the "feeders of the mind." We know that the effect of any act of the senses upon the mind is called a sensation. A pure sensation should be simple, unaffected by past experience. As we cannot study the sensations of a child in earliest infancy, when they are first received, we cannot know the effect of a pure sensation. It is complex when we first know it.

Let us quote an illustration of Buell's. Touch your finger to a needle point. This irritates the end of a sensitive nerve. The irritation is telegraphed in the form of a vibration along the nerve fibre to the brain. The mind interprets the sensation immediately and sends a message along the motor nerve back to the finger tip, telling the finger to move away from the needle. We see how the sensation is received and that it is complex because it presupposes that the individual must move away from anything that causes pain if he would avoid the pain. Then we can study only complex sensations which grow in complexity with experience.

However, sensation is not thought. It is the simplest act of the mind. It merely calls the mental powers into activity. But it is through the sensations that all knowledge is received, and the knowledge is broad and deep in proportion to the strength of the sensations. It is the force of the impressions made through four of the senses, chiefly through sight, that determines largely the development of the deaf child. Then we need to study most of all how to produce the strongest sensations, and so to hold the attention.

We produce voluntary attention by presenting some-

thing new, something that is attractive and appeals to some taste of the children or arouses their curiosity. Children are interested in the unusual; in something very large or very small or odd; in something that is peculiarly adapted to their mode of life or habit of thinking; and especially in something that will serve a useful purpose. A pupil will learn subtraction when he finds by practical experience that he needs to know this in order to make change correctly in buying; that if he cannot calculate accurately he may be cheated.

The highest order of voluntary attention is concentration. The will may call the attention of the mind to a particular subject, but cannot keep it fixed unless the subject produces a succession of attractions. If a subject is not interesting we must not only exercise the mind with the subject, but exert the will to keep the mind on the subject—a waste of effort. The ideal is to keep up a pleasurable excitement of interest all the time. Children want to be happy, as Froebel would tell us, in order to produce in them the highest activity of mind.

The first act of the mind is perception. Upon receiving a sensation the mind goes back to the place where the sensation must have been produced, and it thinks of some object as capable of producing the sensation. To think and know is to detect resemblances and differences.

Children should be accurate about details and rapid in their work. Their minds should act systematically—they should never be negligent or partially idle, but thoroughly awake in all their faculties, using the utmost economy of time and effort. Children can often do things that seem beyond them if we but assume that they can. Did not Shakespeare make Hamlet say to his mother, “Assume a virtue if you have it not”? An impossible thing can be made possible often if we assume that it can be and believe in it.

It is right here that the teacher's influence should be

greatest. He must live the strenuous life himself if he would produce it in the children. He must be thoroughly awake and interested, having had plenty of rest and sleep, and being refreshed from contact with the outside world. He should give the best of his best self to the five hours in the schoolroom. For this time he must crowd out every other interest and live in the hearts of the children, feeling a warm sympathy with all their trials and sorrows, giving a quick response to all their mental actions, guiding and correcting with a loving hand. He must create a high standard of public opinion in the schoolroom, above all things convincing the children that he has a strong sense of justice, gently but surely leading away from everything that is sordid and mean to what is noble and good.

The teacher should be prepared for the day. He banishes all uncertainty—is positive and decided as to his course of action. He dominates and compels with his will the results he desires as surely as do the masters of men and affairs.

Above all things does the teacher need to cultivate an even temperament, a thorough control of his emotions. He must avoid all thoughts that may agitate his mind; the smallest deviation from consistency will often throw the school into dire confusion. Some persons may have a natural poise of disposition, always the same, but many of us, it is to be feared, get it only after years of struggle, and even then a most trivial thing may upset one's equilibrium, and anything like perfection seems as far off as it was in the beginning. We wonder why it is that children always feel the mental atmosphere that surrounds them.

Some one being asked once what teachers should read, replied that, since the world is not divided into men, women, and teachers, as some suppose, they should read just what other people read, as they are trying to train children into other people.

It is through sensation, perception, and attention that the materials of knowledge are collected ready for use. But they would be of little value to the mind were they not applied and remembered, and of course knowledge is not really presented to the mind unless it is understood. It is just here of the greatest importance that the matter in hand be entirely adapted. We must progress from the simple to the complex gradually, almost imperceptibly, but we must progress. Help the children just enough so that they can help themselves. Establish a kind of co-operation by which they shall feel all the time as if they were solving problems and finding out relations themselves. We all like to do what we think we can do well, and when children feel that they are successfully leading into new fields all the time, their ambition is aroused, their minds are on the alert, and they have the pleasurable activity which Froebel recommends.

When knowledge is presented to the mind it must be remembered or the processes of thought cannot go on. We remember chiefly through associating ideas.

The imagination is a process of thought that is not safe in the hands of our deaf children. They wander too much from the truth naturally without the aid of imagination. However, it is necessary to imagine things *like* those before us often, and we must imagine an ideal if we would become like it. But this faculty in our children must be handled judiciously or their minds will run riot.


In the development of all the faculties nothing is of more consequence than good habits. Children should form habits of perceiving correctly, of reasoning and judging, of remembering, and of using the will in the best way. The more experience one has the more is one convinced that the important time with children is the beginning. If they form habits of industry, carefulness, attention, honesty, neatness, and orderliness, and habits of thinking correctly in the first years, they will be pre-

pared to accomplish infinitely more. And if these habits are guarded and kept intact by other teachers all along the line, we are able to produce an approach to what we desire in our pupils. Surely, the greatest responsibility lies with the beginning teacher. The influence of habit is powerful. We see the reason is physiological as well as psychological as we study the development of the brain cells. When one thinks of the force of habit it seems a sin to allow children to form any but good habits.

After habits of good conduct nothing is so important as right habits of thinking and reasoning. We lead children to reason by induction, to assume that certain things are, and then proceed to prove them by experiment. A child sees that *d-o-g* spells *dog* and *d-o-g-s* spells *dogs*, *c-a-t* spells *cat* and *c-a-t-s* spells *cats*. He has discovered a rule—the plurals are formed by adding *s* to the singulars, but *m-a-n* spells *man* and *m-e-n* spells *men*, proving an exception to the rule, and that there are arbitrary cases that must be learned by themselves. If children learn these rules by experiment they will remember them better and the rules will have more meaning for them.

These laws have been learned partly through reading and partly through the teacher's direction, but seemingly they have been discovered by the children themselves. In studying language we sometimes forget that the thought expressed by the language is the most important thing. Thought is the life of the language, and language is merely the servant of thought, not an invention to conceal it, and is important only in proportion as it expresses thought clearly and correctly. If we constantly put forward new and interesting thoughts we have less of the mechanical in language.

Let us bring into the schoolroom something from outside the institution, telling what we do and see wherever we go. Children love to know what others actually do—something that is really true.



Above all things let us teach our children to investigate for themselves in their busy work and in all that they do alone. This is the only way for them to learn self-reliance. Scarcely any one is so helpless and dependent naturally as a deaf child, and there is nothing he needs so much as to walk alone. If we teach him to do this creditably we shall have performed our mission, than which there is none higher on earth.

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LIFE INSURANCE FOR THE DEAF.

NEVER before in the history of the world has life insurance played so important a part as at the present time. It may rightly be called one of the great gifts of the nineteenth century to the twentieth. The public recognition of its value during the past quarter of a century has raised it to a position where it is an important factor both in the social and in the financial life of the nation. The amount of insurance in force in this country to-day in those companies which may be classed as regular probably exceeds \$10,000,000,000. The premium income of these companies is more than \$400,000,000 per annum, and their accumulated assets exceed \$2,250,000,000.

The question is often asked whether reputable old line companies will insure the deaf for the same premium as they charge the average hearing risks. Inquiry is also made frequently as to the reason why some good old line companies hesitate to insure the deaf, why other companies charge the totally deaf an extra premium of \$5.00 per thousand during the life of the policy, and why some of the most conservative companies decline to consider applicants who are devoid of hearing.

In order more thoroughly to acquaint himself with the attitude of the better class of old line companies with regard to insurance of the totally and the partially deaf, the writer sent letters of inquiry to thirty of the seventy-seven companies reported in the Life Insurance Policyholders' Pocket Index of the Spectator Company for 1903, selecting only companies of recognized standing and having an honorable record of from twenty to sixty-eight years in the life insurance business.

Although the results of the inquiries have not been as satisfactory as it was hoped they might be, it has been ascertained that a number of the best companies, among them the oldest company in the country transacting a general life insurance business, will, under favorable conditions, issue their regular life and endowment policies without any extra premium charge. A large proportion of the companies express their willingness to consider applications from persons who have sufficient hearing to understand loud conversation, hear signals, warnings, etc. There are still other companies that will issue policies to the totally deaf on the payment of the extra premium of \$5.00 per thousand, which is usually charged risks that are considered below the average because of some disability or additional liability. Then there are a few companies that are very conservative and so decline to insure the totally deaf, thinking that they should be classed as undesirable and under-average risks.

One of the grounds for hesitating or declining to accept an applicant who is deaf is, of course, the prevalent opinion that the deaf are more liable to accident than persons who can hear. Accordingly there are a few companies that will insure the deaf for the same premium that the average hearing risk is charged, inserting in the policy a clause providing that should death result from an accident due to the deafness of the insured, the liability of the company will be limited. There are some com-

panies that take the ground that the blind are more desirable insurance risks than the deaf; there are others that seem to be of the opinion that a totally deaf person might in reality be a better risk than a person partially deaf, as the latter would be apt to rely to some extent upon his hearing, and might over-estimate the degree of hearing he possessed, and therefore, by putting too much dependence upon it, would become liable to accidents which the totally deaf person, by making his eyes do extra service, would avoid.

Another ground for adverse consideration of the deaf by insurance companies is the fact that they are not in possession of accurate statistics relating to the mortality experience of the class, and consequently are unable to determine whether, even granting that the deaths due to accidents would not be proportionately greater than with other classes, the deafness and the causes of it would not in many cases have a tendency to affect the longevity of the applicant. So far as the writer is aware, there has never been any compilation of statistics upon this particular phase of the subject. As insurance companies cannot be assured by reliable mortality statistics that the average deaf applicant would under favorable conditions live as long as the average risk accepted by them, they are justified in exercising extreme care in granting policies to the deaf. It is not discrimination against the deaf, as it is sometimes thought to be by the deaf applicant who is rejected because of his deafness or something related to it. It would rather be discrimination against the other members of the company, unless the medical directors of the company could be led to believe that because of extremely favorable conditions as to the habits of life, character of occupation, and family history of the applicant, he might be an exceptionally good risk notwithstanding his deafness.

Accordingly one of the purposes of this paper is to in-

stitute inquiry among the educated deaf, especially among the graduates of the State schools and of the College, that may lead to a compilation of mortality statistics of that class of the deaf who would be able and likely to carry insurance. From a general survey of the graduates of the College during the past thirty-five years it appears that their mortality experience would perhaps be as favorable as that among hearing persons of like age. If the statistics for the general body of former students of the College should prove to be as favorable as the mortality record of the graduates, some action might be secured on the part of insurance companies which would lead to a removal of the restrictions against the educated deaf.

As nearly all of the State institutions keep records of their graduates, it would doubtless be possible for statistics showing the rate of mortality at different ages since graduation to be compiled by some one interested in the subject in several of the older institutions of the country. In the compilation of these statistics it would be desirable that only those graduates should be considered who completed a regular course and who would have some claim to be classed with the educated deaf, for a large proportion of the deaf who do not graduate would never be applicants for insurance. It would seem, too, that the mortality experience of the educated deaf should be much more favorable than that of the deaf as a class, for obvious reasons which it is not necessary to go into at this time.

A compilation of accurate mortality statistics would do more to remove the so-called discrimination against the deaf by some of the better life insurance companies than anything else that could be done. It is hoped that the National Association of the Deaf may, at its coming meeting in St. Louis, take some steps through committees or otherwise that will lead to the obtaining of this important information.

It might be well to endeavor to ascertain also just what has been the percentage of accidental deaths among the educated deaf who would have been able to carry old line life insurance, during the past twenty or thirty years. Statistics on this phase of the subject might prove of advantage also in inducing the leading accident companies of the country to look with more favor upon deaf applicants for accident insurance.

Then, too, it might be worth while to look into the question of the relative mortality experience of those who are classed as hard-of-hearing and of the totally deaf; it might, upon investigation, be found that the totally deaf have the advantage as regards average longevity, and this would certainly be a point in their favor, as the majority of old line companies of recognized standing will now accept the hard-of-hearing on the same basis as the average hearing person, provided the deafness is not progressive, has not varied much in degree for several years, and has had no apparent ill effects upon the health of the applicant.

In order more clearly to illustrate the attitude taken by the leading insurance companies of the country which will under certain conditions entertain applications from the deaf, it may be of interest to quote a few extracts from letters received recently from the home offices of the various companies.

In reply to a letter to the New York Life, the secretary of the company said :

“The New York Life Insurance Company considers applications for insurance on the life of deaf persons, if first-class in every other respect, on Ordinary Life, Limited Payment, or Endowment Plans, but policies issued to such persons will contain a clause placing them in the Company's Adjustable Accumulation Class, and providing that any apportionment of surplus shall be based on the mortality experience of the class.”

Attention should be called to the clause providing that deaf persons are placed by the New York Life in a special class, which shows that they are not given the same policy as the average risk, but one of the forms of policies that they write on impaired risks. However, in the course of time the New York Life will probably discover that its policy-holders who are deaf will average as well in mortality experience as other risks which they assume, but do not consider as below the average.

The Mutual Life Insurance Company, of New York, says :

“ We beg to advise that persons who are deaf, male or female, are taken on the basis of an annual extra charge of one-half per cent., or \$5.00. On Limited Payment Life or Endowments a commuted extra is charged, in accordance with Company's published table. No policies are issued without an extra charge.”

In reply to a second inquiry regarding insurance of the partially deaf, the Mutual, of New York, wrote :

“ We beg to advise you that no extra will be charged unless applicant is totally deaf.”

From the Equitable Life Assurance Society the following information was elicited :

“ Would state concerning the subject of insuring deaf people, in this Society any applicant who is totally deaf is only accepted by paying an additional premium to the standard rate for the policy applied for. We do not limit them to any special form of policy for this one factor alone.”

In reply to further inquiry, the Equitable wrote :

“ Regarding the action of this Society concerning persons partially deaf, who can hear ordinary signals, warnings, etc., and who, apart from their partial deafness, are desirable risks, would state that this condition is disregarded unless it is an indication of serious progressive

ear disease which sooner or later would cause total deafness."

The New England Mutual, which was organized in 1835, and is therefore the oldest regular life insurance company in the United States, wrote through its medical director :

"Yours asking us as to the attitude of this Company towards those applicants who are either totally or partially deaf has been referred to me. Our decision in these cases depends upon two factors: First as to whether or not the cause of deafness is such as to add to the hazard of the risk, and second as to whether, on account of occupation, surroundings, or habits, the hazard is affected materially by the deafness. If both of these questions are answered in the negative, we should probably accept the risk at ordinary rates and issue any ordinary form of policy."

The John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company, of Boston, has the following to say :

"We formerly wrote on deaf-mutes, but never allowed a general canvass of them. Of late years we have been more restrictive, particularly since the electric vehicles are driven so recklessly, both automobiles and cars, which naturally creates an extra hazard in this class of applicants.

"Replying to your questions, we will issue Ordinary Life or 20-Payment Life policies to deaf person, if the cause of deafness is not acute, and the applicant is well cared for. We charge no extra premiums on any policies. The same answer would apply to Endowments; and as to issuing on persons not deaf, but only very hard-of-hearing, we should issue if a favorable case, but the cause of deafness would be closely considered.

"To sum it up in one sentence, we prefer not to have these people solicited, but an occasional one we might issue a policy to, if conditions were favorable."

The National Life Insurance Company, of Vermont, writes :

“ Though of course there is a little more liability to accident where a party is wholly or partially deaf, we have never discriminated against them except in cases where the deafness was caused by some disease which might have a bearing on the future health of the party or on his probable longevity, and of course in considering these cases we take into consideration also the party's occupation.

“ Of course where there is an imperfection like this we prefer to have a high-priced form of insurance like Endowments taken, but we have not considered it in the case of deaf persons as of sufficient importance to lay down a general rule for limitation.”

The Provident Life and Trust Company, of Philadelphia, writes :

“ Persons totally deaf are not safely insurable on account of danger from accident, unless in cases where applicants are especially protected from this danger. Persons partially deaf, but able to hear ordinary noises without the aid of mechanical devices, are insurable, and upon all of the ordinary plans.”

From the above it would appear that the Provident Life and Trust would be willing to consider applications from totally deaf persons not subject to the increased hazards of life in a city, if conditions as to occupation, habits of life, etc., were favorable.

The Phoenix Mutual Life, of Hartford, replied through its vice-president :

“ We think our position in the matter to which you refer is much the same as that of other conservative companies. We have no fixed rule that we will either accept or decline applications on persons who are partially or totally deaf, or who have any other similar disability. We certainly consider it a disadvantage, for it

seems likely that deaf persons are subject to somewhat greater risks in some ways than those whose hearing is acute. We have, however, in the past and probably shall in the future occasionally write policies on the lives of those who are partially and even totally deaf. Each case, however, would come up on its own merits, and would be decided according to the circumstances surrounding it."

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, of New York, under cover of the 3d of February, wrote:

"It is our practice to limit deaf-mutes, or those rendered deaf by accident or disease, to policies on our Fifteen or Twenty-Year Endowment plans, if all the surrounding circumstances are satisfactory, as to mode of life, necessity for insurance, etc. If there appears to be any extra hazard, because of the impairment, we grant the same contracts in our sub-standard class."

The Washington Life Insurance Company and the United States Life Insurance Company, both of which have their home offices in New York City, will, under favorable conditions, grant their Twenty-Year Endowment contracts to persons totally deaf, and the Prudential, of Newark, N. J., has in the past sometimes issued its Fifteen-Year Endowments to applicants of this class.

There are several other well-known old line companies that have occasionally insured persons who were totally deaf. They do not like, however, to lay down any rule as to whether they will consider applications from the deaf or not. An actuary of one of them says that there is practically no experience on this question as a guide for the companies, and the practice varies, each case usually being considered by itself.

In addition to the foregoing, a number of other reliable companies, among which may be mentioned the Mutual Benefit, of Newark, New Jersey; the Penn Mutual, of Philadelphia; the Travelers, of Hartford; the Massachusetts Mutual and the State Mutual, both of Massachu-

setts ; the Michigan Mutual, of Detroit ; the Home, the Germania, and the Provident Savings, the headquarters of all three of which are in New York ; the Berkshire, of Massachusetts, and the Pacific Mutual, of California, will, under favorable conditions, insure partially deaf persons on the ordinary plans, without any additional premium, provided the deafness is not too serious, and is neither progressive nor due to existing disease.

From the above it would appear that the deaf applicant for insurance has a sufficiently large number of reputable companies from which to choose, and should be able to obtain almost any form of policy contract desired without additional premium charge. But in this connection it might be well to state that although all the companies named in this paper are reliable and can be depended upon to perform whatever they agree to do in their policies, there is often a considerable difference in the long run in the cost of the same kind of insurance in these different companies.

It would be impossible to state too emphatically that life insurance should be bought in the same way that anything else is purchased ; the intending purchaser should investigate carefully before buying. The average person ought to know the essential facts about life insurance or else he should secure the services of an unprejudiced expert to help him decide upon a company and a contract. He should not assume that all old line life insurance companies are about alike. They are not.

Without doubt the most important thing to be considered is the policy contract. All companies are not equally liberal in their treatment of policy-holders, hence a careful comparison of the various guarantees and provisions of the policies of different companies should always be made before choosing a company. The old line company that is most liberal toward its policy-holders, most economical and conservative in its management, most care-

ful in the selection of its risks and in the character of its investments, and which, under these conditions, is a growing company, is a good one in which to have a policy. But the largest company is not necessarily the strongest; it is not usually the most conservatively and economically managed; it does not generally give the most satisfactory results.

Another thing to be considered in choosing a company is the matter of dividends. The growth of annual dividend insurance in this country during the past few years would seem to indicate that semi-tontine, or deferred dividends, are not in as great favor as they were formerly. However, there are arguments in favor of both the methods of applying dividends, so this question should not be overlooked when selecting a company. Careful investigation as to the past record and the present and future prospects of various companies in the matter of dividends to policy-holders may result in a saving amounting to one or more full premiums in the course of fifteen or twenty years. The dividends declared by various companies on policies that are paid up differ still more widely.

It will be perceived that in this brief article nothing has been said thus far with regard to assessment associations and fraternal insurance societies. Concerning the assessment concerns very little in their favor can be said; their day in this country, it is hoped, is fast passing away. Many of them have during the past eight or ten years seen the error of their way and, by complying with the statutes of the various States, have become legal reserve companies; this fact explains the large number of new companies transacting an old line business.

In behalf of fraternal insurance a great deal of good might be said, but at the same time it is very important ever to bear in mind that fraternal societies cannot furnish *life* insurance; they cannot make an insurance *contract*; they cannot write an insurance *policy*; the best that

they can offer is *term* insurance, and that at an uncertain cost.

The best insurance is the cheapest in the long run, and it will generally be found upon impartial investigation that the only insurance organizations that can stand the test of time are those based upon the scientific principles which underlie old line life insurance.

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A SIGNIFICANT WORD FROM GERMANY.

AT a meeting of the Association of German Teachers of the Deaf held at Frankfort-on-the-Main last September, an interesting paper was read by Mr. Danger, the Director of the School for the Deaf at Emden, on "The Education of the Deaf for Human Society."

Mr. Danger stated that his object was to present the aim of the education of the deaf in our institutions to be "(a) to advance the deaf so that they may become independent members of the communities of this present world, and (b) to show them the way and accompany them on the way which leads to the heavenly home."

It is not my purpose to discuss Mr. Danger's paper in its entirety, for a good *résumé* of it was given in the February number of the *Association Review*, but I wish to call attention to two significant statements.

The first of these is, "Some of the deaf are in consequence of insufficient capacity not able to be educated in spoken language. The best plan would be after a few years of schooling to separate them from the mentally normal pupils and have them instructed by means of natural signs and written language in separate institutions."

This suggestion, which is a radical departure from the policy generally urged by the pure oralists of Germany, calls to my mind the claim which has often been made by critics of the German method, that it has been for years a custom in the German schools to drop out such children as could not learn to speak well, on the ground that they were of feeble mind. It is believed by many that in this way large numbers of the deaf children of Germany have been shut out from the privileges of education which were justly theirs. Whether this is true or not, the position taken by Mr. Danger, just quoted, makes several important admissions as to the insufficiency of the German method for the successful education of the mass of deaf-mutes. First, it is acknowledged that a sufficient number of deaf children are unable to receive education in spoken language to justify the establishment of separate institutions for their accommodation. This means that there are many such children. Secondly, these children are not called idiotic, but are considered capable of receiving an education. Thirdly, it is recommended that they be instructed not only by means of written language but the sign language.

The arrangement advocated by Mr. Danger was suggested by me many years ago when I first brought to the attention of teachers of the deaf the possibilities of the Combined System. Among various arrangements which I thought could be made in combining the different methods of educating the deaf, I spoke of just this one, that there might be separate schools, in some of which the oral method might be pursued and in others the manual. I commend Mr. Danger's recommendations to those in this country who have during the last few years been advocating a policy that would give to the deaf no other means of education than those afforded in schools based on the pure oral method, and I should be glad if there could be a general

concurrence on their part in the views so clearly put forth by Mr. Danger.

And now for the second point in this paper on which I have a word to say. In speaking of the spiritual training of the deaf, especially after they have left school, he makes mention of a measure worthy of imitation, which will go into effect in the Province of Hanover in 1904. He says: "With the aid of the teachers of the deaf, six times a year divine service is to be held in various cities for the adult deaf, the teachers to work hand in hand with the pastor of the place."

It has often been claimed by advocates of the pure oral method that the deaf in general, who have learned to speak and read from the lips, could be interested attendants on ordinary church services, understanding enough from the motion of the lips of the one conducting the service to make attendance thereon agreeable and profitable. I have never had any good reason to believe that this claim was well founded, and it interests me to see that Mr. Danger agrees with me when I read his approval of the plan which has just been explained. He evidently thinks it to be necessary for teachers of the deaf in some way to assist the pastor in interpreting church services so that they will be interesting and profitable to the deaf.

Mr. Danger does not say whether these teachers are expected to use signs or to reproduce the speech of the pastor in a way to make it intelligible to the deaf. My presumption is that they are expected to use the sign language to a greater or less degree, for my own experience in Germany has informed me that much use of the sign language is made in dealing with the adult deaf in that country, and in many schools with those still under instruction.

In thus drawing attention to Mr. Danger's suggestions, and the admissions involved in them, I would not be understood as commending his proposal for separate schools

as the best form of the Combined System, for I think the arrangement which provides for separate manual and oral classes, with chapel services and lectures in signs for all, is greatly to be preferred. I wish simply to commend Mr. Danger's *admissions*, as to the insufficiency of the pure oral method in two important respects, to the serious consideration of those who have heretofore advocated that method to the exclusion of all others in the education of the deaf.

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THE DEAF IN HEARING SCHOOLS AND IN DAY-SCHOOLS.*

EXTRAVAGANT claims are not infrequently put forward regarding the possibilities of conducting the education of the deaf as a class in schools for the hearing as soon as speech and lip-reading have been acquired. Such rose-colored promises are very harmful; they excite expectations that in but few instances are realized, and create in the public mind very erroneous ideas upon the subject of the education of the deaf. That a small number of the deaf, those richly endowed by nature, may be so educated is not to be denied, but that the deaf as a class shall ever be successfully educated with the hearing in schools for the hearing is in the nature of things as improbable as it is impracticable. Since by nature or through disease these children form a special class in the community, it will ever be the part of wisdom to maintain special schools in which in general to secure their education. Such schools should be fostered by the community and generously supported by the State; none but the most approved methods and the best of teachers should be employed, and none but the best appliances known to

* From the Report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the year 1902-1903.

education should be provided. In schools so provided for and so maintained, the education of the deaf, as a class, along the best lines will ever be assured.

Nor is it believed by conservative instructors of the deaf that the day-school system now being introduced in some of our Western cities and States as a part of the public school system will ever prove the success claimed for it. In the end the system will be found expensive and disappointing in results. Ideally the plan appeals to the public and to parents, but practically it is weak and falls far short of promoting the best welfare of the deaf. It has its origin in large measure in the externat-internat system pursued in many of the German schools, but there is a very wide difference between them. In Germany the children are boarders (internats) until they are far enough advanced to profit by communication with outsiders when, as externats, they are placed in near-by families to be boarded and lodged, going back and forth to the school for instruction. The potent influence of the instructors and officers of the school is constantly maintained, there is no break in the work, the children are simply sent among neighboring hearing families to be boarded and lodged in the hope that the intercourse so established may prove helpful to their speech. From this in many respects excellent system, the American day-school system differs very essentially. With the latter there is complete cessation of the power and influence of the school the moment school hours are over. With American ideas of home life, its freedom and lack of restraint, pupils cannot well be followed to the home circle to be there influenced and restrained by the officers and teachers of a school. Parents will not suffer it, nor will they, except in rare instances, exert themselves in any manner to supplement the work of the classroom.

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ORAL WORK AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

*To Superintendents and Principals of
American Schools for the Deaf.*

At a regular meeting of the Board of Directors of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, the undersigned were appointed a Committee representing the Association to co-operate in the interests of teaching speech to the deaf with the Committee appointed by the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf at Buffalo, which Committee has in charge the exhibit of schools for the deaf at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. The offer to co-operate with this Convention Committee was made to Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, its chairman, and our proposed services were gladly accepted by his Committee and the Exposition authorities.

Extensive and satisfactory arrangements are making at the Exposition for the continuous operation in the Palace of Education during the months of May to November of a Model School for the Deaf under the supervision of Mr. Alvin E. Pope, Superintendent of Group Seven, Department of Education. This school will consist of twelve rooms or spaces, properly divided, eight of which will be used for a living exhibit, and four for an objective exhibit. The Exposition Company provides free space for schoolrooms and for dormitories. The schoolrooms for both literary and industrial classes have been equipped as exhibits within themselves by public-spirited and enterprising business houses, and one of the Washington University dormitories, just completed and now furnished, will be placed at our disposal. Arrangements have been made for taking care of pupils taking part in the living exhibit, the estimated cost for maintenance being from \$5.00 to \$8.00 per capita each week. To this expense must be added the cost of maintenance for teacher and supervisor accompanying the class, for which, probably, provision will be made in the dormitory. A circular giving detailed information concerning the exhibit has heretofore been sent to heads of schools by Mr.

Pope, to whom further inquiries should be directed, care of Exposition, St. Louis.

The living exhibit is to consist of classes with teachers and supervisors, no class to have more than six pupils. Any number of classes may be sent from any school to illustrate any one or several lines of work. This exhibit will certainly be one of the most interesting and instructive features of the Exposition, and we urge upon the heads of schools that speech and speech-reading classes be sent to participate in this united effort for a living exhibit in order to show to the thousands what has been and is now being done to give speech and the understanding of speech to the deaf, and to show that education by such means is an accomplished fact. A living exhibit will be far-reaching in its results, and will be remembered and talked of when much else is forgotten.

We respectfully insist that *now is the time for prompt action* upon your part looking to a full presentation of the oral work of all schools by means of a living exhibit, and for the making of an objective exhibit by means of charts, photographs of classes, school apparatus and furnishings, together with courses of study, text books, etc., etc., and whatever could be presented that would make clear the plan and scope and beneficent results of our oral schools and classes.

If you have not already taken steps for such an exhibit, please do so at once for the sake of the cause in general. If the institution funds are not sufficient to permit of the expense, take the matter up with your State Commission on World's Fair, or with your Governor (who may have at his disposal a contingency fund for emergencies) and probably one or the other may be able to render financial aid in this laudable undertaking, which will reflect more luster upon a State than will its exhibits along many other lines. Mr. Pope and this Committee will be pleased to render you any possible assistance.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON, *Chairman*,
EDMUND LYON,
ELBERT A. GRUVER.

INDIANAPOLIS, February 15, 1904.

THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, ST. LOUIS, 1904.

The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association will meet in St. Louis, June 28 to July 2, 1904. The meetings will be held in the Exposition grounds, and the "Inside Inn" hotel has been selected for the headquarters of the Association members. All the meetings are to be held in the afternoon. This arrangement is made to give people a chance to visit the fair in the morning; in the afternoon, when they are tired of walking, they can sit down in attending the meetings of the various departments.

The following programme for the meetings of this Department has been arranged :

Wednesday Afternoon, June 29, 2 o'clock.

1. President's Address: JOHN W. JONES, M. A., Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, Columbus, Ohio.

2. What Teachers may learn from the Model Schools of the Deaf and Blind and their Exhibits: S. M. GREEN, B. S. D., Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, Missouri.

3. Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education: OSCAR CHRISTMAN, Ph. D., Professor of Paidology, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

4. Business: Appointment of Committees.

Friday Afternoon, July 1, 2 o'clock.

1. Report of Commission on Statistics Relative to Children in the Public Schools of the United States who need Special Methods of Instruction: PERCIVAL HALL, M. A., Professor of Applied Mathematics and Pedagogy, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., and Secretary of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children.

2. The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate

Children ; its Educational and Scientific Methods : Miss MARY R. CAMPBELL, Secretary and Treasurer, Chicago, Illinois.

3. The Teacher and the Defective Child : M. A. GOLDSTEIN, M. D., St. Louis, Missouri.

4. Business : Reports of Committees ; Election of Officers.

Special concessions on the combined cost of admission to the Exposition and membership in the Association, and special rates for entertainment for members have been secured. For information on this point, as well as programmes of all the meetings, rates of transportation, ticket conditions, and other details, address Mr. Irwin Shepard, Secretary N. E. A., Winona, Minnesota.

JOHN W. JONES,
President.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF THE DEAF AT ST. LOUIS.

THE Congress will meet under the auspices of the National Association of the Deaf in St. Louis, August 20-27, 1904.

The first meeting will be held in the afternoon of Saturday, August 20, in one of the halls of congress. Appropriate opening exercises will be held, with addresses from prominent Exposition officials and from representative men among the deaf and their educators. The chief speaker, it is hoped, will be Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET.

On Sunday a religious meeting of an undenominational character will be held.

On the succeeding days papers will be read and discussed, the National Association will hold a business meeting, and other matters will be attended to. Only the mornings will be devoted to business, leaving the afternoons and evenings free to delegates.

The following papers will represent the share of the United States in the programme of the Congress :

1. By Professor A. G. DRAPER, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., "The Education of the Deaf in the United States. Methods employed ; forces at work for or against particular methods ; recent developments ; the stand the educated deaf are known to take in the matter, etc."

2. By Mr. OLOF HANSON, Seattle, Wash., "The Industrial Problem among the American Deaf. The value of manual training in the schools; the acceptability of deaf workmen to hearing employers; their relation to labor unions; the trades which offer least handicap in competition with the hearing; the proportion of tramps and beggars, etc."

3. By Mr. THOMAS F. FOX, Station M, New York City, "The Social Status of the Deaf. The necessity by which they are driven to establish pleasure clubs, literary associations, guilds, etc., of their own; their relations with their hearing environment, etc."

4. By Rev. PHILIP J. HASENSTAB, Chicago, "The Moral and Religious Status of the Deaf. Religious instruction in the schools; church missions for the adult deaf; the need of more ordained ministers and secular religious instructors to hold religious and other services in the sign language for the deaf, etc."

Endeavors are being made to obtain from representative foreign deaf persons papers treating of the following general topic: "The Intellectual, Industrial, School, and Moral Status of the Deaf, including a brief exposition of the educational methods employed, the practical results of those methods, as shown in the adult deaf; the stand taken by the educated deaf toward those methods; the position the adult deaf hold in the industrial world; their social life; provisions for their religious welfare, etc."

The following countries have been invited to discuss the above topic: Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Canada, Australia, Mexico. Mr. GEORGE FRANKLAND, of London, has agreed to represent Great Britain. Mr. ALBIN MARIA WATZULIK will speak for Germany and Austria, and Mr. HERBERT W. ROBERTS, of Toronto, for Canada. Other foreign representatives have not been heard from definitely as yet.

For information regarding hotel accommodations and other local matters during the Congress, address Rev. J. H. Cloud, 2606 Virginia Ave., St. Louis, Mo.

J. L. SMITH,
T. F. FOX,
G. W. VEDITZ,
Committee on Programme.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

MORBIDI, G. *Il Terzo Libro di Lettura e di Lingua pei Sordomuti* [Third Book of Reading and Language for Deaf-Mutes]. Siena: Tipografia Calasanziana. 1903. 12mo., pp. 127.

Mr. Morbidi's First and Second Books of Reading and Language were noticed in the *Annals*, xlviii, 277. The Third Book continues the series on the same general plan as the First and Second, bringing the pupil by easy gradations to stories, letters, and compositions.

NORDIN, FREDRIK. *Quelques Institutions Françaises de Sourds-Muets* [A Few French Deaf-Mute Institutions]. Vänersborg. 1903. 8vo., pp. 16.

This is a *résumé* in French of a report in Swedish by Mr. Nordin, Director of the Departmental Institution for the Deaf at Vänersborg, Sweden, and Editor of the periodical *Nordisk Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan*. The schools described are the National Institution at Paris, the National Institution at Bordeaux, and the Departmental Institution at Asnières (Seine). Concerning them all Mr. Nordin reports favorably, saying that they make excellent provision for instruction in language, speech, general knowledge, and industries, so that it may be said without any exaggeration that in the instruction of the deaf France still preserves the great traditions of its famous and noble founder, the Abbé de l'Épée.

ROTHERT, HENRY W. *Compulsory Education and its Relations to the Defective Classes*. Council Bluffs: Iowa School for the Deaf Press. 1904. 8vo., pp. 14.

This paper, by the Superintendent of the Iowa School, was read at a Quarterly Conference of the State Board of Control and Superintendents at Des Moines. It presents some weighty arguments in favor of the compulsory education of children in general, and of the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded in particular. Iowa has recently passed a law for

compulsory education, but its provisions do not include the members of these three special classes who stand most in need of it, and Mr. Rothert clearly and forcibly shows the necessity of further legislation for their benefit.

STAPLER, MAURY M., M. D. Some Advantages of Stapler's Rarefier in the Treatment of the Ear. Atlanta: The Franklin Printing and Publishing Company. 1904. 8vo. pp. 12.

Dr. Stapler has already been mentioned in the *Annals* (vol. xlv, p. 503), as a specialist who claims that deaf-mutism is curable in many cases. In this pamphlet he reiterates the claim. He says :

"Fully appreciating the importance of the statement, with a knowledge of the false hopes it would arouse if untrue, I still assert that there is hope of establishing distinct hearing and speech to all those cases of deaf-mutism in which there is no history of disease involving the nervous system, no manifest deformity, and in which the tympanic membranes are not destroyed, be they congenital or adventitious. With the knowledge acquired in the treatment of this class of cases in the past six years I should feel disappointed if, with favorable surroundings, I should fail to establish distinct hearing and speech to less than a third of those treated."

In Dr. Stapler's favor it is to be said that he is a member of several medical associations of good standing and the president of the medical society of his own town, Macon, Georgia, that he makes no secret of his methods of treatment, and that he invites the fullest investigation from physicians and instructors of the deaf. On the other hand it was shown in the article in the *Annals* above mentioned that in four cases reported by him four years ago as cured the children were still deaf. In one of these cases the boy had to be placed in a school for the deaf after receiving Dr. Stapler's treatment, and in three others, where the children had been taken out of school to receive treatment, they afterwards had to be returned to school.

VALADE-GABEL, P. A. *L'Abbé de l'Épée à Villereau* [The Abbé de l'Épée at Villereau]. Reims : Cercle Abbé de l'Épée. 1903. 12 mo., pp. 105. [Price 18 cents.]

This book was written by the former Censor of Studies in the National Institution at Paris, and is published at the expense and sold for the benefit of the Friendly Association of Deaf-Mutes of Champagne, of which Mr. Émile Mercier is the president. It consists of a series of sixteen conversations supposed to have taken place between the Abbé de l'Épée and a group of his early pupils at Villereau, a country village where the good Abbé was accustomed to take his scholars during their summer vacation. The personages and the place are real ; the conversations are imaginary, but their subject-matter has for the most part some foundation in fact, as is explained in the appended "*documents historiques*." Mr. Valade-Gabel has been a thorough student of De l'Épée's life and work, and these conversations, written in simple style for deaf children at school, give considerable information concerning the character, family, pupils, and methods of instruction of the great founder of deaf-mute instruction in France.

Reports of Schools (published in 1903) : Georgia, Iowa, New South Wales, Ontario, Vänersborg (Deaf-Blind) ; (published in 1904), Bristol (England), Göteborg (Sweden), Pennsylvania.

SCHOOL ITEMS.

American School.—The twenty-fifth anniversary of Dr. Job Williams's term of office as Principal of the School was celebrated March 25, 1904, by a reception in his honor. The officers and teachers gave him a handsome French clock, Mr. Abel S. Clark made a suitable address, reviewing the progress in the instruction of the deaf and the improvements in the American School during Dr. Williams's term of office, and a congratulatory letter from the Board of Directors and letters from several heads of other schools were read.

Cologne Institution.—Mr. Nicholas Weissweiler, Director of this Institution and the Nestor of the instruction of the deaf

in Germany, died November 19, 1903, aged seventy-nine. He had been connected with the Cologne Institution for fifty-six years—twenty-six as instructor and thirty as director. He was the author of several text-books for the deaf, and a frequent contributor to the periodicals of the profession.

Genoa Institution.—Miss Merope Bernasconi, formerly of the Milan Institution, and a teacher in the Genoa Institution for the past ten years, died November 19, 1903, aged thirty-eight. The Institution press reprints in pamphlet form a glowing tribute to her memory from the Genoa *Il Cittadino*.

Indiana Institution.—Dr. William H. Latham, a teacher in this Institution for nearly half a century, died at his home in Indianapolis, April 5, 1904, aged ninety. Dr. Latham was a graduate of Dartmouth College, studied medicine in Cincinnati, and began practice as a physician in Columbus, Ohio. In 1845 he became a teacher in the Ohio Institution and in 1853 in the Indiana Institution, where he taught until 1891, making his entire term of service in the profession fifty-six years. He was the author of two books for teaching language to the deaf and of two articles on the same subject published in the *Annals* many years ago. He was an energetic, earnest teacher, inspiring his pupils to faithful work, and exerting upon them a lasting influence for good.

Hon. Samuel A. Bonner, a Trustee of the Institution since 1895 and President of the Board since 1896, died on the same day as Dr. Latham, aged seventy-seven. Judge Bonner's interest in the work of the Institution was exceptionally strong, leading him to attend conventions of instructors and to give his time and strength unstintedly to promote its welfare. Few men holding a similar office are so well known to the members of the profession generally and few have held so warm a place in their hearts.

Iowa School.—Vigorous efforts have been made during the past year to have the School removed to a more central place in the State, but the final decision seems to be that it shall remain at Council Bluffs. Liberal appropriations for the erection of new buildings have been made.

Kentucky School.—The name of the School has been changed by an act of the last legislature from "The Kentucky Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes" to "The Kentucky School for the Deaf." The *Kentucky Standard* says : "We started out eighty years ago as an 'Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb,' twenty years ago we became an 'Institution for the Education of Deaf-Mutes,' and now we have at last attained the dignity of a 'School for the Deaf.' "

Mississippi Institution.—By an act of the last legislature the Institution is to be moved to a new location in the suburbs of Jackson. A Commission of five members, including the Governor and the Attorney-General, is to purchase the site and erect the buildings after plans to be adopted by the Board of Trustees and the Superintendent of the Institution. Mr. Dobyns is appointed Secretary of the Commission.

New England Industrial School.—Miss Nellie H. Swett, Principal of this School for the past ten years, died March 29, 1904, in her fiftieth year. She was the child of deaf parents, and devoted her life to the education of the deaf. Her father, William B. Swett, was the founder of this School. When the educational department was opened in 1880 Miss Swett was the first teacher, and on the death of her father, four years later, she became the Principal. At that time the School was burdened with a heavy mortgage. Since then the mortgage has been removed and the facilities of the School have been much increased. Miss Swett was a handsome woman, of charming manners, skilful and faithful as a teacher and principal, always ready to sacrifice herself for the sake of others.

Pennsylvania Institution.—Mrs. Edna (Howes) Davidson, a former teacher of the Institution, died February 7, 1904, of pneumonia. Mrs. Davidson became deaf from a fall at the age of ten, and attended the Clarke School, in which, after graduation and a course of study in the Normal Art School at Boston, she taught for a year. In 1891 she was married to Mr. Samuel G. Davidson, and later taught for several years in the same school with her husband. She was a remarkably good lip-reader and a pleasant speaker, a woman of wide culture and high attainments, a zealous and successful teacher, de-

voted to the welfare of the adult deaf of Philadelphia and the State, and the light of her home. She leaves one child, a boy.

Sacramento Day-School.—A public oral day school for the deaf was opened in Sacramento, California, in January of this year. It is in charge of Miss H. Ray Kribs, formerly of the Sheboygan, Wisconsin, School.

Washington Heights School.—On Saturday, May 7, at 4 o'clock, this School, situated at 847 St. Nicholas Avenue, New York, will hold an open session. All interested in the deaf are invited to attend and during the social hour following the session to express any views relative to the instruction of the deaf.

ERRATUM.

In the March number of the *Annals*, page 126, lines 11-13, for "She had given things no names orally and used no signs before this except perhaps only a short graphic movement" read "She had given things names orally and used signs before this, though perhaps only a short graphic movement."

ADVERTISEMENTS.

A teacher of experience who can furnish the most satisfactory testimonials desires a position. Address B. K. H., "Oakhurst," 22d St., Parkersburg, W. Va.

A lady who has had fourteen years' experience as a teacher of the deaf by the manual method in one school, and has visited many other schools and studied their methods, desires a position as teacher. Good references. Address M. B. G., 1136 E. 25th Street, Los Angeles, California.

A course of lessons on the mechanism of speech, the correction of defective speech, and speech development and voice training for deaf children, will be given during the month of July, 1904, in Boston, by Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro, special teacher of speech in the Horace Mann School for the Deaf. For further information, address Mrs. SARAH JORDAN MONRO, Room 47, Pierce Building, Boston, Mass.

AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

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THREE YEARS OF LANGUAGE.—II.*

Incidental Language.

It is a good deal of a problem just how much incidental language is justifiable when a carefully planned regular lesson is in progress, and on the other hand the neglect of a heaven-sent opportunity seems like flying in the face of Providence. There is a tradition among teachers of the deaf which relates how, once upon a time, the circus came to town, and a language teacher seized the opportunity to teach *hippopotamus* to a second-year class, to the horror of the principal, who objected because *hippopotamus* belonged in the vocabulary of the seventh month of the third year! Then there is another tradition about a school in which the teachers were instructed never to let any incident go by without attempting to teach the appropriate language, and this tradition goes on to relate that no children ever completed the course of study. Now these are the two extremes, and it is evident that somewhere between lies a proper middle course.

The early morning, before the formal opening of school, furnishes an attractive time for the teaching of incidental language, and the last few minutes of the session

* Concluded from the May number of the *Annals*, vol. xlix, p. 229.


are not much less valuable; all the time in between might be utilized in the same way, only of course it mustn't be. In the morning the children come in burning to tell thrilling tales of hair-breadth escapes in the Subway and on the Elevated; at least they seem thrilling until the cold white light of common sense is turned on them, when they are rather likely to prove to be quite ordinary. Unfettered by special aim, it is possible at such a time to drift back and forth, making use of scraps of idiomatic language, filling up large parentheses with equivalents, and covering a blackboard with odds and ends somewhat analogous to the disjointed conversation of a group of children talking without much regard to etiquette but with no lack of interest.

For example, after a boy in a third-year class had witnessed an accident in the street, the blackboard might show some such appearance as this. It must be remembered that not everything which is said is written, although everything which is written has always been said.

A horse ran away because an automobile frightened it. The driver was thrown out and hurt.

(man who drove)

(ambulance
wagon with a bed)

(doctor
ambulance doctor
doctor with a red cross
on his sleeve.
)

(hospital
very large house
many beds
many doctors
many nurses
gruel
medicine)

nurse
woman
blue and white dress
white cap
white apron
very softly

I think the man has no money. Perhaps the automobile driver will pay money at the hospital.

automobile
chauffeur

horse and wagon
driver

electric car
motor-man

horse-car
driver

(train
some cars and an engine)
engineer

steamer
driver

They charge seven dollars a week at the hospital.

It costs

Sometimes people go for nothing.

(no money)
zero

A blackboard filled as indicated above represents ten or fifteen minutes' talk and the contributions of seven or eight children as well as their demands for information. All the new words of such an exercise would be gathered and placed in their appropriate lists before erasure.

Little children with less language and less knowledge of the world are interested in simpler events. During the course of a regular lesson in the youngest class accidents occur—a child sneezes or tips his chair, or looks away from the teacher's face, and it seems to some teachers wise to take enough time from the particular lesson planned to write on the blackboard some account of the accidental happening, a short account if the happening be of little consequence, and a rather elaborate one if it be of sufficient importance to make a lasting impression on the children's minds. It is a habit with the writer to do this sort of work on a side board, to which the children have to turn in order to read, and to leave such hastily written accounts on the board as long as possible during the session. The reason for this is somewhat unorthodox; there are some children who cannot or will not look at the teacher and the lesson which is being taught all the time, but will

insist on letting their eyes wander around the room, and it has been observed more than once by the writer that these wandering glances often fall upon the incidental language board and stay there for as much as a minute before coming back to the lesson; and she believes that upon such occasions a certain percentage of the incidental language sinks in, because it is very likely to be proffered to her in the next lesson which calls for voluntary statements.

Whether these incidental bits stay on the board a long or a short time the verbs are always picked out and put under the list of untaught verbs on a special blackboard, the nouns are added to the noun list, and the adjectives and prepositions are treated in the same way if the class is sufficiently advanced. From the lists so acquired the new words of planned lessons are always selected except in the case of a regular vocabulary lesson. It often happens that the children remember all about the occasion of the original writing of the word in the list, and easily link their new knowledge to the old.

The devoting of special blackboards to the different parts of speech helps the children to straighten out their language. Often they come in full of some new story and undertake to tell it only to find that they lack the words to clothe their thoughts, and as they make known their wants with vigorous hands they point to the proper board for the teacher to write on. At the end of a period, too, when the teacher glances over all the boards to pick up any new words for her lists, they soon learn to show her where to write them.

So is built up a sort of sense, which perhaps is somewhat analogous to a hearing child's power of generalization which he evinces when he says, "Tell me all the things you and Aunt Lucy *had* when you were girls, Mamma, and all the things Uncle Harry *did*." It is a long long time before the average deaf child can talk about the

things he *has* and the things he *does* discriminatingly, but when he plainly distinguishes the two concepts in his own mind he is approaching the ability to do it.

These lists remain a long time on the board and the children acquire a rather intimate acquaintance with them, an acquaintance which they evince in various ways; first they use them in their sentences; second, they "spot" a new word instantly and demand that it be placed on the board in its appropriate list; and third, if, through the teacher's mistake, a word is duplicated, there are always three or four children who without any preliminary looking can pounce upon the duplicated word where it was first written and show her the error of her ways. The last two habits show that the children must possess a pretty accurate mental picture of the words on the boards around them.

It is believed that "incidental language" managed in some such way helps to create an atmosphere of language, and that is what every teacher of the deaf is trying to do.

The Language of Number.

The formal teaching of arithmetic, or "number," as the subject is usually designated in primary courses of study here in New England, begins with the fourth year of school. There is a good deal of language, however, about the incidents of every-day life which may fairly be termed "the language of number," and it is the aim of this course of study to give to the pupils before the end of their third year of school such a comprehension of number as the average child of six or seven would obtain outside of school in the world of the street, the playground, and the home—if the home be one in which children have to do with the family finances or have attention paid to a development of the number sense.*

*Hearing children from wealthy homes, or homes where "sordid thoughts" are carefully discouraged, are often curiously backward in practical arithmetic.

The numeral adjectives are taught among the first words and are used in sentences as soon as possible. Sentences containing number conditions are introduced into stories and incidental language just as early as comprehension can be hoped for, and this is very early if careful illustration is given. For example:

Two boys ran. One boy fell. One boy stopped.

Three girls fell. Two girls laughed. One girl cried.

As soon as the question form "How many" is understood it is used constantly, not only to obtain answers which are obvious, but where a little thought is necessary. Illustrating will usually make matters plain.

The expressions which are so difficult when problems are reached in the regular number-work are used as early as possible in the language lessons until a sense of their meaning is gradually built up. [How many had he left? How many were left? Then how many were there? Bought for two cents; Sold for one dollar; Bought at two cents apiece; Two cents more; Four is one less than five, etc.]

Problems involving such business transactions as come within the knowledge of a hearing child of six or seven who does the family errands are given as language lessons both for the sake of the thought involved and for the vocabulary. Very often not one child can think out the answer unaided, but the lesson will be valuable none the less, just as the lesson is valuable to the hearing child whose mother *tells* him how much change to bring back, and explains to him over and over again until at last he knows without the telling.

A knowledge of local market quotations is rather essential to this sort of work in order that it may link itself firmly to the children's apperceptive basis.

All sorts of counting exercises are very useful, forward and backward, by twos, by threes, by fours, fives, and

tens, orally and in writing. An exercise which little children enjoy, after they have learned to count with objects to twenty and know the general theory of counting to a hundred, is managed as follows :

The children armed with tablets and pencils sit before the teacher and are told to "count to ten." They write on narrow slips of paper one, two, three, etc., and bring their slips up for inspection ; those whose slips are faultless select a place on the chalk-tray in the order of their arrival at the teacher's side, lay down their slips, take new ones and go back to write from ten to twenty ; those who have the slightest error, an *i* undotted, a *z* uncrossed, or an actual misspelling, are presented with a new slip and must begin over again. Long before the first ten has been correctly written by every child the quickest children are working on forty-one, forty-two, etc., and in the course of a period the bright children will often accumulate slips on which are correctly written all the numbers from one to a hundred and some extra ones on which they have written a certain ten backward, as hurriedly directed by the teacher, while the slower children are being laboriously drilled on the fact that *eight* (not *ight*) always comes after *seven*, and the other interesting fact that *nine* has four round tops with a sharp one between the first two and the second two, and that custom invariably requires a dot to be placed over the said sharp top.

Deaf children get the same kind of pleasure out of an exercise like this that hearing children do out of rhythmical counting, and the writer is old-fashioned enough to believe that a great deal of counting produces a very favorable reaction upon a child's sense of number.

Broadening Lessons.

This heading is used for lack of a better. What is meant by it is a designation of a series of informal lessons and exercises intended to broaden the children's mental

outlook. The aim is to give to our deaf children at least an entrance into the world of thought and knowledge which surrounds hearing children. No immediate return is expected from these exercises; the pupils are not required to formulate one single sentence or question in regard to them, although the subject-matter of any one exercise may very well be utilized as the topic for a formal lesson at some other period. They are intended to take the place in the deaf child's early education that stories and picture-books and the friendly talk of adults take in a hearing child's. If questions are asked by the pupils they are answered; if individual information is volunteered it is accepted, but no immediately productive result is ever asked for.

Perhaps a partial list of suggestive topics will show more clearly than additional explanations the scope and purpose of these lessons, which are not often more than ten minutes long.

Far south

Black people

Savages

Palm trees

Far north

Esquimaux

Dogs and sleds

Icebergs

Polar bears and walruses

Deserts

Arabs

Camels

Oases

The Jungle

Lions

Tigers

Deer

Ships

Grace Darling

The beach

Shipwrecks

Lighthouses

Mermaids

Whales and whaling ships

Pirates

The army

The navy

War

Boston

The police

The fire department

The schools

The men working on the street

The parks

Mountains

Lakes

Rivers

Mines

Indians

Electricity

Cars

Telephone

Telegraph

Fire-alarm

Electric light

Electric bell

Poor people

Rich people

Comfortable people

The city

The country

Robinson Crusoe

Fairies

Pictures and rapidly written and spoken explanations of a somewhat fragmentary character furnish the means of conveying knowledge concerning these various topics. Short and vivid stories embodying the facts are acceptable if accompanied by enough explanation.

The last two topics mentioned, *Robinson Crusoe* and *Fairies*, furnish an endless amount of material for imaginative classes, but with some children the response is very discouraging. One class will spend two or three weeks on *Robinson Crusoe* (a few minutes each day) and at the end of the time will draw a series of pictures which will depict every important event of that hero's life; the children will adopt *raft*, *wreck*, *desert island*, *cave*, etc., into their vocabulary, and consider *Robinson Crusoe* one of their friends forever; while another class will say "All finished" the second time the teacher mentions the famous person's name.

Fairies sometimes prove interesting and sometimes uninteresting; on the whole, rather more often the latter, in the writer's experience, although when a class does take hold of the idea no more fascinating subject for these lessons can be found.

Acting and impersonating help out at every stage of this work. After a story or an episode has been hastily related and all available pictures shown, an attempt to act it out will give to the teacher a pretty good idea as to the correctness of the impression she has managed to make. Two historic errors in the experience of the writer are amusing and typical of the confusion which must always be guarded against.

Once a ship was wrecked and while most of the sailors clung to the rigging one was detailed to fire a gun as a signal of distress. Grace Darling and her father were rowing madly through the big waves to the rescue, when the above-mentioned sailor turned his gun upon the rescuers under the impression that they were pirates,

although pirates had not been mentioned in that class for six months.

The other trying circumstance was when a hardy Alpine climber, who had fallen off a precipice dragging the rope with him, tried to swim ashore.

There were compensations even then, though; for during the Grace Darling episode one boy declined to personate the father and busied himself about constructing an impromptu breeches-buoy; and the boy who tried to swim ashore out of the abyss had enough explanation showered upon him by his classmates to make him a professional mountain climber.

Stories.

Stories serve two different purposes in the language-work here described. The first and natural purpose is to lead the children to an interest in printed thought in the days to come; a large proportion of them will never get much beyond the tragedies and scandals of the daily paper; the larger part of the remainder will take an interest in ordinary fiction, and a few, a very few, will enter into their heritage and know the delights of the world of books—in short, they will duplicate in miniature the attitude of the hearing world about them in regard to books.

Whatever their future is to be, however, they must all make the first start; they must all learn by experience that it is possible to acquire new knowledge and have a good time while reading. So, from the very beginning, little stories are put before the children, generally on the blackboard, but sometimes on printed sheets, simply to interest them. These stories increase in complexity of thought as the weeks go on; they usually deal with rather exciting events which are partly within the experience of some of the children or else permit of ready illustration, and they aim to be *interesting*, nothing more.

Material for these stories comes from all sources—from

the teacher was right or wrong, the incident certainly shows that the problem concerning the use of reading-books is not confined to the education of the deaf.

Memory Exercises.

Pedagogical opinion as to the part which memory should play in the education of the young has undergone many changes. In the old days memory was the all-important factor; then it fell into great disrepute and educators spoke sniffily of "mere memory"; anon came the psychologists who admitted that the ability to remember well was a desirable thing, but claimed it to be inborn and denied that any training could help it; and last arrived the child-study people, who agreed with the psychologist's opinion in the main, but held that between the ages of nine and thirteen children should be encouraged to "exercise" whatever memories they might be born with, although "training" was an impossibility. This news lacks two years of being up to date, so it is not entirely trustworthy; but common sense seems to tell any teacher of the deaf that what is known as *memory* to the world at large, the common every-day ability to remember what they have learned, must become a part of the mental make-up of his pupils if their education is to do them any good.

The quality of the memory may be inborn, and unsusceptible of change by training, but the disposition which governs its exercise is susceptible of a good deal of training. In other words, poor memory is sometimes the result of mental laziness which can be shaken off if vigorous measures are taken, but may, if allowed to become a permanent habit, result in a state of mind little short of lethargy. Not all poor memory can be stimulated to better work, but some can be.

The sense-perception lessons of the beginners' class form the foundation for memory exercises, and a few

typical devices which have been found useful in interesting the children and inducing them to exert their powers of memory will here be written down to give a general idea of the scope of the work.

Make a simple drawing on the blackboard; erase and let a child reproduce; if he fails in some essential point let a second child try; but if the second child fails begin over again, because the class will have seen too many mistakes to retain a clear impression of the teacher's drawing. When a child has reproduced correctly, erase and make another drawing similar except in one particular and proceed as before. These drawings may be increased in intricacy as the work proceeds. Not more than five minutes is needed for an exercise of this kind, which may be sandwiched in as a rest between two more fatiguing ones.

Perform a series of simple acts and let a child repeat. Do the same, adding, inserting, or changing one act of the series. This admits of endless variety.

Take a number of objects and place them rapidly in a certain order and let the children attempt to imitate.

Write several familiar words on the blackboard, erasing each word as it is finished and call for reproduction.

Tell the children to say some one word or sentence to you the minute they step over the threshold in the morning, and keep a record of those who remember to obey.

Write a sentence on the blackboard and "study" it for some time and then show that you know it. Let the children do the same. From one sentence in the first year this object of study is increased to a paragraph in the third. When a sentence has two or three prepositional phrases it is sometimes a help to associate them with different parts of the blackboard or different parts of the room.

In short, let the children whose memories are poor have the benefit of the same sort of mental tricks and

devices by means of which most hearing people teach themselves or are taught by clever tutors to pass examinations and to get through critical situations in life. Whatever the psychology of the matter may be, it seems to be a fact empirically established, that the more times a child has remembered correctly, the more times he is likely to remember in the future. The sense of successful accomplishment gives him courage for further effort in the exercise of his memory as in the exercise of his limbs, and repeated failure makes him timid in both cases alike.

Time Lessons.

The various kinds of work which have to do with time-phrases and the sense of time require a clock-face with movable hands and numerous old calendars, the more the better.

The youngest children learn to cross off the day on the calendar and to put in some kind of a graphic illustration of the weather. The second-year children learn the days of the week, to find *to-day*, *yesterday*, and *to-morrow* on the calendar, to tear off the sheet at the end of the month, and toward the end of the year to say and write, "To-day is —," "Yesterday was —," and "To-morrow will be —."

The third-year children (second year of language) learn the months, the phrases "last month," "this month," "next month," the seasons, and enough about years to use the expressions "this year," "last year," "next year."

The fourth-year children spend a good deal of time in learning about past events located in certain years. They learn in what year they were born, in what year they came to school, during what years they were in the different classes, in what year "there was a war," or "Miss — went to Europe," or "—'s father went to Cuba," etc., gradually growing into the knowledge that there is definite history behind them. Concerning the

future they learn in what years they will attain certain ages and then they speculate a little under proper guidance.

At this time such phrases as "Ten years ago," "Long ago," "Once upon a time," "In ten years," "When mother was a girl," "Before you were born," etc., are taught.

The work with the clock-face consists of learning to tell the hour, half-hour, quarter past and quarter of, but usually no more. ●

The Making of Sets of Books.

Children like the sense of accomplishment which productive effort gives to them, and so during the progress of the language work which has been here described they are helped to make several different kinds of books embodying the different kinds of work. Perhaps a list of these may be of interest.

A word book containing the year's vocabulary. First year only.

A book of people, containing all the names they know or come across.

A book of classified nouns in which all the words known to any member of the class are put in under appropriate headings, people, animals, food, drinks, fruits, berries, vegetables, furniture, toys, places, etc.

A book of noun phrases, containing such expressions as

a quart of —

a package of —

a bottle of —

A time-book containing all the words and expressions taught in the time lessons, and a good many little scraps of history suggested by the holidays of historical significance.

A book of verbs, grouping the verbs which are related to each other by meaning:

talk	go
speak	come
say	walk
ask	march

A weather book containing an account of each day's weather, the way of the wind, etc.

A picture-book in which each child pastes pictures and copies descriptions and stories which he has previously written and had corrected.

The last two are individual; in all the other cases the books of a class would be all alike.

Of course all these books are not written in every day. Usually some one book is receiving rather important consideration. The books of classified nouns, for instance, receive attention for half an hour a day for two or three weeks, then they are put into the children's desks for purposes of reference, and as new nouns come up the pupils classify them and write them in the books under the appropriate headings. The verb book is treated in the same way. The picture-books, after they are once started, which is not until January of the third year (of language) are usually written in every day.

Conclusion.

This account of language work is given to the readers of the *Annals* with a very lively sense of its imperfections and of the kind of criticism which its writer must expect to meet. There is only one thing to be said for it: in every particular it represents work which has actually been done, not with every class, sometimes only with one class, sometimes not very lately; but in some one of the twelve years and a half during which she has been a teacher of the deaf, and in almost every case within the last eight years, the writer has herself done at least once the work which has here been described.

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THE SPEECH OF THE SEMI-MUTE.

THE following article is based on my observation of the speech and lip-reading of students who come to Gallaudet College, where I have taught for eleven years.

This observation leads me to believe that the semi-mute in his preparatory school years does not always receive the careful and constant attention which his peculiar condition demands.

Let us suppose an average case. A child loses his hearing at the age of six or seven. Usually his parents spend a year or two in the effort to regain his hearing, going from one specialist to another, until all hope that he will ever hear again is abandoned. Then they decide to send him to a school for the deaf, and he enters a State institution. Here he is put into an oral class of ten or twelve children of about his own age, the majority of whom are congenitally deaf. The lessons are necessarily adapted to these congenitally deaf children, not at all to the semi-mute's peculiar needs. They are short and include only a very limited vocabulary. While the conscientious and busy teacher is striving to teach such sentences as "I see a cat," and "James throws the ball," the new pupil looks on with a sort of mild wonder and superiority. He doesn't see why so much fuss is made over writing and saying such "baby things." He can say with the hero of "The Evolution of Dodd," "I've allus knowd that."

He attends the articulation drill. The teacher tries to teach him the positions for *p*, *t*, *k*, and other sounds. He doesn't like learning the elements of speech. It is hard to make him understand the difference between the sound of a letter in a word and its name. A, b, c's are good enough for him; he knows *them*. He takes no interest in reading from the lips.

The teacher has more than enough to do. She is trying hard to teach congenitally deaf children to talk, and this child disturbs her. He is almost an annoyance with his hearing-boy ways. She gradually gives up teaching him the elements of speech and "just lets him talk." His lessons are soon recited glibly, taking but little of the teacher's time. So he receives but little attention during his first year or two at school.

After a time there comes a change in the semi-mute's speech. It is not so distinct as formerly. He has to repeat to make himself understood. He hesitates and his words are no longer properly grouped. He talks in a sort of staccato, each word thrown out by a new impulse of the breath. His lungs are filled and emptied like a bellows. All continuity of sound is broken up. The back of his tongue is raised and rigid and the soft palate is constantly kept down, producing a nasal voice. The muscles at the back of the tongue are contracted. There is an unnatural contraction of the vocal chords. The voice is thrown directly upon them, making speech an effort and tending to tire the throat and keep it in an inflamed condition.

Many of the bad habits into which the semi-mute has fallen are due largely to imitation. He sees the labored speech of the congenitally deaf and unconsciously falls into the very fault the teacher is trying hard to overcome. He sees the exaggerated and slow speech of the teacher in his work with beginners; that too he copies to his own undoing. His faults of voice are due to lack of care. It takes so much time to keep a voice in good condition and to train a naturally bad voice that it is hardly possible for a teacher with an overcrowded class to do justice to this part of the work, but it is so important that too much cannot be said about it.

Lilli Lehman, an authority on voice culture, says this: "Without raising the chest especially high I force the

Breath against it and hold it fast there. At the same time I raise my palate high and prevent the escape of breath through the nose. The diaphragm beneath reacts against it, and furnishes pressure from the abdomen. Chest, diaphragm, the closed epiglottis, and the raised palate all form a supply chamber for the breath. The breath must be emitted from the breath chamber very sparingly to the vocal chords. The more directly the breath pressure is exerted against the chest, the less breath flows through the vocal chords, and the less, consequently, are these overburdened."

We find on analyzing the words of our semi-mute after several years in school that his consonants have fared badly and his vowels even worse. In the consonants the organs of speech often assume the right positions, but the frictional and explosive character which gives them individuality is lacking. Such is particularly the case in consonant combinations. For instance, in the combination *pl* or *bl*, the *l* has no sound. The ear is conscious of a rest between the *p* or *b* and the vowel that follows the *l*, and the eye sees a slight spasmodic movement. The tongue, being no longer flexible and at the command of the will, after once attaining the *l* position refuses to leave it quickly, and the following vowel is made with up-lifted tongue, giving it an unpleasant muffled sound. Another instance is in the combination *en*. The *s* has disappeared, the tongue simply taking the position and resting there without giving breath. But these are only a few of his many faults of speech. We find defects in nearly all combinations, both initial and final, as well as in single consonants.

It has been claimed that with perfect consonants any vowel may bind them together and make speech that can be understood. I do not consider this claim well founded. My advice is, Don't take any risks. Try to put every vowel into its proper place and let the pupil be sure he

knows that place. Our semi-mute apparently has an ideal, and although that ideal is wrong the fact that he invariably makes the consonants the same way every time he speaks, enables the accustomed ear to grasp them in spite of their defects. But he has not a shadow of an idea as to how the vowels should be made. Therefore not even the most astute teacher can become "accustomed" to his vowels. Like the cipher dispatches that need a new key every time one is sent, so only a new key each time this semi-mute speaks would enable us to translate his vowels into English sounds. Unfortunately there is no key, so we give up in despair and frankly confess we do not understand what he is trying to say. His uncertain and bewildered tongue wanders around in his mouth at a loss where to place itself. We are not sure a vowel will ever be made twice alike. His tongue is drawn backward as far as possible, his teeth are scarcely parted, and the stiffness of lockjaw is in the jaws.

The deterioration in the speech of the semi-mute has been slow and almost imperceptible to the teacher who unconsciously compares his speech with that of the congenitally deaf. The truth is that the semi-mute and the congenitally deaf should be taught articulation separately. It is impossible for one teacher to do justice to them both in the same class. The semi-mute's speech needs the greatest care in the early years of his deafness. It is a matter upon which the intelligibility of his future speech will depend. That he can talk when he enters school is no guarantee that he always will talk. He must have a guide to take the place of the ear, and that guide must be his teacher. He should be taught positions carefully in order to preserve his speech and enable him to pronounce new words correctly. He should be taught to breathe properly. He should be made to talk both in the schoolroom and outside. Too often he is allowed to be silent from one school session to another. His lip-reading should be

carefully attended to. He should not be allowed to cultivate a sentiment against using his speech.

Some semi-mutes seem to forget that they are ever to have any intercourse with the outside world. They are content to be with other deaf in school and do not realize that in the future they may be thrown entirely with hearing people. It should be pointed out to them that in the world the ability to speak distinctly and to read the lips accurately are of untold value. The busy world is not going to stop to write or to read writing.

I have made notes of the peculiarities of speech of many students at the beginning of their college course. I have talked with these students and discovered some of the conditions which led to their speech becoming faulty. I copy here a few of them :

A. B. ends all words terminating in a consonant with an extra vowel. Thus he says "badu, goodũ, hatu, etc. I remonstrate with him. These words are not pronounced thus among hearing people. "How can anybody hear a sound without any voice in it, or a *d* the way you make it?" he retorts. He has pronounced words this way ever since he can remember, and it must be right, for nobody has ever told him before that it was wrong. So I meet my Waterloo, for he goes on speaking English as she is spoke according to his own ideas, and smiling indulgently at me when I try to eliminate these extraneous vowels from his speech. I cannot quite believe that he has never been corrected. He is one who likes to forget when it is convenient.

C. D. is never sure about the sound of *c*; his "cent" and "city" are often "kent" and "kitty." With the aid of a little meditation when he comes to this letter, and a chart to jog his memory, he is beginning to remember that *c* cannot have the sound of *k* before *e*, *i*, and *y*. This makes many of his words easier for the general public to understand. If there is a rule for pronunciation in the

English language that has no or few exceptions, by all means let us teach it.

E. F. talks with set jaws and closed teeth, which make his speech muffled and forces the stranger to pay close attention to understand. A little care during childhood would have cured this defect; now, when he has formed his own opinions, he says it would make him conspicuous if he opened his mouth wider than he does.

G. H. substitutes *n* for *ng*; thus "strength" and "length" become "strenth" and "lenth," and all final *ng*'s are changed to *n*. He is surprised at my criticism, and says it has never been made before.

I. J. easily tires his throat in talking although his speech is fluent. He is learning to relax his tongue and has added an *s* to his vocabulary of sounds.

K. L. has never learned positions and does not see any use in learning them, as he can talk. I try to show him that speech can be kept up and lip-reading improved by knowing and practicing positions. This contempt for learning positions is one of the most serious obstacles with which I have to contend among my semi-mute students.

M. N., unlike our typical semi-mute, runs his words together so badly that his speech is very indistinct. The last word in every sentence is given with a long drawl. He also has a strained and unnatural voice. He was educated in a manual class. He had attended an articulation class for five years, but got tired of it, and for the past four years had been allowed to drop articulation and had not talked at all. Being young and of immature judgment the results naturally show that he was not fitted to decide on an elective course for himself. As Dr. Münsterberg has pointed out, no young boy or girl is properly qualified to decide as to what pre-collegiate studies he will pursue.

A great deal can be done for the semi-mute during his

four or five years at college if he comes knowing the elementary work of articulation. His college studies enlarge his vocabulary. These new words must be pronounced and properly accented. This is an easy task if he is familiar with the technique of speech. He learns to use the dictionary to find out how to pronounce and accent words. Every effort is made to establish his speech and to make him independent, so that he can keep it without a teacher after he leaves college. His lip-reading is on broader lines than it has been heretofore, keeping pace with his intellectual development. This is the kind of work we aim to do with all students.

In our work with the Normal Class in articulation training we impress upon these future teachers as strongly as possible the absolute necessity of thorough elementary work. Immediately after their entrance for several months the members of the Normal Class observe our teaching and receive direct individual instruction. We criticize their defects of speech and voice and errors in pronunciation, endeavoring to make them models of correct speech. Later they are given an excellent opportunity to practice what has been preached to them concerning speech foundations. They see how constantly we are obliged with these college students to lose valuable time in going back to pick up broken threads.

It is not an easy task to polish up consonants, bring back combinations, and settle each vowel in its proper place. It is a herculean task to restore a voice that has been gathering imperfections for ten or twelve years.

The case of the semi-mute that I have described is a composite one, and somewhat varied will fit many students that have come under my instruction.

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THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL
EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,
ST. LOUIS, 1904.

THE Forty-third Annual Convention of the National Educational Association brought together thousands of teachers, a considerable number of them engaged in the special work of educating the deaf, the blind, or the feeble-minded. But the great distances between places of meeting, the heat in the assembly halls, and the conflict of programmes, hardly avoidable in arranging such an enormous undertaking as the annual convention has become, confined the attendance upon the meeting of the Department of Special Education to a small number of enthusiasts already engaged in special education and a few visitors apparently attracted by curiosity.

Among those present were Mr. J. W. Jones, Superintendent of the Ohio School for the Deaf; Dr. Noble B. McKee, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf; Miss Mary McCowen, Supervising Principal of the Chicago Day-Schools, with Misses Cornelia D. Bingham and Eudora Montgomery; Miss Elizabeth Van Adestine, Principal of the Detroit Day-School, with Miss May L. Guthrie; Miss Anna E. Schaffer, State Inspector of Schools for the Deaf in Wisconsin; Dr. D. P. McMillan, head of the child-study department of Chicago; Miss Mary R. Campbell, Educational Adviser for the Chicago School for Special Education; Mr. S. M. Green, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind; Mr. J. H. Freeman, Superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind; Mr. R. C. Spencer, President of the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, and Professor Percival Hall, of Gallaudet College.

The attendance at the first meeting was about 35, and at the second 60.

At the time of the Convention many exhibits of peculiar interest to teachers of the special classes were to be seen in the Exposition buildings. In the Education Building were the Model Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind. A description of the Model School for the Deaf and its exhibits may be found elsewhere in this number of the *Annals*. Besides these, in the State booths were to be found many excellent exhibits of work from schools for the deaf. The State Institutions of California, Colorado, Kentucky, Louisiana, New York, (Fanwood and Lexington Avenue), Western New York, Nebraska, North Dakota, Utah, Wisconsin, and the Cleveland and Horace Mann Day-Schools all had interesting displays of school work and shop work. These will remain throughout the Exposition. The exhibition of designs by pupils for illustration and decoration shown by the New York Institution is especially worthy of mention. The cabinet-making and wood-turning shown in the Wisconsin and Kentucky exhibits are unusually good. Several other schools expect to bring their exhibits with the pupils for the Model School at a later time.

In the Electricity Building, Miss Bingham, under the direction of Miss McCowen, was giving exhibitions of the instruction of deaf children by means of the aconsticon and the instructicon, the successors, at least in date of invention, of the akoulalion and akouphone. Considering all the attractions it is a pity that more teachers of the deaf were not present at the meeting.

On Friday evening, July 1, at the Illinois State Building, an enjoyable reception was tendered to the members of the Department of Special Education by the teachers of the Chicago Day-Schools for the Deaf.

Some blind children entertained the company with music, and deaf children from the Chicago Schools gave a little play.

As usual, the proceedings of the Department will be published with the General Secretary's Report, which is sent to all active members of the Association without charge.

The Session of Wednesday afternoon, June 29, began with the address of the President, J. W. JONES, Superintendent of the Ohio School for the Deaf. He said:

Special education has its place in our great school system, and it is right and proper that those engaged in it should meet on the broadest possible basis and exchange ideas.

What is our work? How are our teachers faring compared with teachers of ordinary schools? Do our pupils gain more in comparison than the pupils of ordinary schools? How does our school organization compare with that of the ordinary schools?

In special schools, including day-schools for the deaf, everything is systematic and regular. Sufficient play, regular study, diversified work, and in State schools wholesome food, an abundance of sleep, and punctual attendance are great advantages.

In ordinary schools, as carried on at present, it is impossible to secure all these benefits, yet they are so important that they should engage the attention of educators more generally.

In special schools are found also manual and industrial training, complete art schools, gymnasiums, domestic science departments, and specialties of many kinds, which teach children to be independent. Manual training develops the children both physically and mentally. Parents notice their helpfulness at home and speak of it. From this we can conclude that the State might well spend more money in trades teaching and manual training in the ordinary schools, getting a return for the increased cost in more efficient men and women.

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It is true that there is a larger percentage of objectionable children in our special schools, and that the average of intelligence is lower than in ordinary schools, but it is also true that, when the sense only is affected and not the mentality, the mind is quickened. It is attractive and interesting work to teach such children. With the deaf and the blind and also with the feeble-minded it is certainly true that they are better off in special schools than anywhere else.

Segregation is necessary in educating special classes. The work of our special schools gives us deaf and blind children educated always to the point of usefulness and self-support.

We have mentioned several reasons why the children in special schools have superior advantages. Another, which contributes also, is the fact that the teachers are more carefully prepared, chosen, and supervised. Their tenure of office is almost always secure. These schools are often better equipped with working material than are the ordinary schools.

The special schools keep abreast of the times in all lines, as the programmes of these meetings attest. Especial attention is called to a late advanced step taken in the Ohio School for Feeble-Minded Youth with regard to the adult of this class. The Superintendent, Dr. G. A. Doren, has obtained a custodial farm large enough to give employment to all the adult feeble-minded of the State. It is arranged in such a way that the sexes are separated from each other, and all are separated from society at large.

As statistics show that weakness of mind is often hereditary, this is a great step, not only toward the happiness of the feeble-minded, but for the good of society.

The advanced work in speech and lip-reading which the schools for the deaf are doing, and the increased opportunities for the education of the deaf-blind are proofs

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of the endeavors put forth by the special schools to better the condition of all classes and bring light to those in darkness.

Our work is a great one. To work with children is a blessing to one who has true love in the heart. But to engage in a work with and for defective children, to instruct them and enlighten them, is the greatest work. Its conception, organization, and fruition is akin to an obedience to the Master's call, "Go ye into the world and teach all people."

Mr. SPENCER observed that the President claimed especial advantages for the State schools, and asked if the superintendents of such schools had been convinced of this fact by personal observation. He said he feared they were unconsciously prejudiced against day-schools by the idea that there must be conflict between them and the State institutions.

Mr. JONES replied that he had purposely included the day-schools with the State institutions, in claiming superiority over ordinary schools, in order to avoid all feeling on this subject.

Mr. S. M. GREEN, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind, then read a paper on "What Teachers may Learn from the Model Schools for the Deaf and the Blind and their Exhibits."

The teacher of the normal child may be greatly helped as he approaches the work of the deaf and the blind by observing the mental processes and intellectual tendencies of the two classes.

The blind child has a narrower basis of knowledge, compares and classifies his percepts more frequently, and knows what he knows more thoroughly, because a large majority of sense percepts come through the eye.

He easily makes mental pictures of his percepts, words come easily to his tongue. He often overrates his acquisition. The deaf child, his brain flooded with percepts, lacking in concentration, understands the thing seen, but does not always compare and classify. He cannot translate his knowledge into terms which others understand, and so becomes distrustful of his ability to apprehend the idea.

The beneficent results of manual work are especially felt in schools for the blind and the deaf; particularly are they felt by the blind child, who finds the world unfolding to him as successive acts of sense perception bring it to his consciousness.

I would suggest that the great deficiency in the instruction of these two classes of pupils is the lack of nature study.

The abundance of material so gained may be used to develop power of expression for the deaf, training them into easier use of the symbols of thought.

In the matter of trades taught for self-support, the deaf outnumber the blind—about five to one—as there are so few occupations which can be followed by the blind without the help of seeing people.

The teacher who leaves this exhibit without feeling that there are many avenues to reach the child and further his development, and that his individuality should be studied and conserved, has missed much of its lessons.

The instructor of the seeing child is helped by his study of these schools to determine what variation his pupil makes from the normal pupil, whether he needs more observation work or more imagination culture, whether logical and reflective studies, or those with social sympathetic basis, and he may then set to work to remove the deficiency, not label the child stupid and consider him hopeless.

Mr. OSCAR CHRISMAN, Professor of Paidology in the Ohio University, then read a paper on "Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education."

He at first pointed out the great number of children defective in sight or hearing at present in our schools and the need of testing all children for such defects. He then said:

Civilization is laying great burdens upon the eye and the ear. The noises of cities affect the delicate parts of the ear. The eye especially has hardly been able to keep up with the demands advanced civilizations make upon it.

A great amount of work is demanded of it to assist the hearing. Defective sight or hearing in children is quite hurtful to good school work. A child so afflicted fails to understand because he cannot see or hear properly, and so loses interest and becomes indifferent. He is then designated as lazy or stupid by his teacher.

Such defects, too, have great influence upon the character of the child. When blamed or punished by the teacher for his backwardness he feels wronged, and hence grows morose and stubborn, or, even worse, loses all hope and falls away into that number who become criminals or merely beings who exist. This is proved by tests of sight and hearing in the John Worthy School in Chicago for truants and the like, which showed these boys to have greater defects than the children of the public schools and even of those below the average in intelligence.

Tests of sight and hearing should be carried out in all schools where it is possible. Where it is not possible much may be done by the teacher by observation. Especial notice should be given to dull, vicious, and lazy ones. Pupils that habitually turn the head to one side in listening are probably defective in hearing. Those having frequent headaches, who hold work close to the eyes, or who wrinkle the forehead, may be defective in sight. Mouth breathers and those showing blank faces sometimes have adenoid growths.

The classification of public school children should be partly on physical condition and capacity. Teachers should be trained to instruct children of different degrees of sight and hearing, and to know how to help them both physically and mentally. Schools of the future will be in the hands of experts not only in methods but also in the knowledge of children, who will be divided into classes and groups partly according to their physical condition and capacity, and as careful a study of the normal child will be made as is now made in the case of the abnormal child.

Dr. D. P. McMILLAN offered a few informal remarks on Mr. Green's paper.

The President appointed as a nominating committee Professor PERCIVAL HALL, Mr. S. M. GREEN, and Miss MARY R. CAMPBELL. The meeting then adjourned.

On Friday afternoon, July 1, the department met for its second and last session with Mr. J. W. JONES, the President, in the chair.

Professor PERCIVAL HALL, of Gallaudet College, Secretary of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children, then presented the following report:

The Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children, appointed by this Department of the National Educational Association at the summer meeting of 1902, made a most interesting report at the Boston meeting last summer, giving statistics which were collected for the committee through the Bureau of Education.*

It was found that out of 34,426 pupils examined in six cities, 13.4 per cent. were seriously defective in sight, and

* Proceedings of the National Educational Association for 1903. A full report with valuable appendix is published in the advance sheets of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1902, Chapter xlvI,

out of 57,072 pupils, examined in seven cities, 3.6 per cent. were seriously defective in hearing.

These percentages, obtained from a comparatively small number of pupils, and varying greatly, as the report showed, in different cities, cannot be taken as a definite basis for computing the number of such defective children in the whole country; but they certainly point out most plainly a state of affairs which calls for uniform and methodical examination with the view of alleviating present troubles, of finding out the causes of the defects discovered, and of checking them, if possible, in the future.

The report of last year's committee was accepted, and the committee was enlarged and continued, with the suggestion that methods of testing the sight and hearing of school children should be investigated.

The present committee, before beginning active work, endeavored to obtain the assistance of the Bureau of Education in sending out queries and gathering further statistics; but, on account of the pressure of work at the Bureau because of preparation of the great exhibits for the Exposition, the Commissioner of Education felt unable to grant the assistance sought.

The idea of testing the sight and hearing of school children is by no means a new one. In some cities, such as Worcester and Chicago, much systematic work of this kind has been going on for years, but from the statistics gathered last year it was clear that in a great many cities nothing was being done. Therefore the committee, to stir up interest in the work, sent out the full report of last year's committee to superintendents of public schools in about 125 of the largest cities of the United States.

It was decided that the committee itself, by experimenting for a short time with various tests, would not be able to obtain results of any value compared with those already obtained in several places where different kinds of systematic tests of the sight and hearing of thousands

of school children have been carried on. Therefore the following set of questions was sent out to the superintendents of schools of every city of the United States of 30,000, or over, inhabitants.

1. What method or device is used to test the sight of the pupils of thepublic schools?
2. What method or device is used to test the hearing of the pupils of thepublic schools?
3. By whom (whether by specialists or by the teachers of the pupils examined) are the tests made?
4. In case preliminary tests are made by teachers, are the pupils found defective then tested by specialists?
5. Are the kindergarten children, or children unable to read, tested to determine defects of sight, and if so, what device is used?
6. Do you consider the watch test a proper and sufficient one to be used by the teacher to determine defective hearing?
7. Have you ever used methods other than those given above, of testing sight and hearing? If so, why did you change?
8. What are the main causes of defective sight among your school children?
9. What are the main causes of defective hearing among your school children?

These questions were sent out to 135 cities, and 55 replies were received. In 28 of these cities formal tests of the sight of children able to read are made periodically; in 9 others informal tests are made by hearing the children read, by using charts, and by general observation.

In 20 cities formal tests of hearing are made at regular intervals; and in 12 cities informal tests are carried out by means of conversation, reading, and general observation.

In only 9 of the 55 cities replying are the kindergarten children, or those unable to read, tested for defective sight.

Snellen's standard test types are employed in nearly all cases for testing sight. It has been pointed out by several authorities that this test is not sufficient for detecting "farsightedness," neither is it a test for color blindness, and some other defects of vision, and in a few

cities additional devices are employed to make the test more complete. However, the test by means of Snellen types, simple color tests, and observation on the part of the teacher as to the causes of headaches among the pupils have, in several cities, led to the detection of nearly all cases of defective vision.

Testing the sight of kindergarten children, or those unable to read, is successfully accomplished in Chicago and other cities by means of the illiterate, or "E" test, which consists of placing an E in different positions,



at fixed distances, and requiring the child to place an E in the same positions. Naming familiar objects at fixed distances, and recognizing or reproducing simple geometrical forms from given distances are other tests that are employed with young children.

A majority of the replies to the committee's questions shows that testing the hearing by means of a watch is not satisfactory. In Chicago the watch is supplemented by the use of the voice, a "clicker," and the audiometer. In Worcester the ordinary voice is used. In all cases where defects of hearing are suspected, it is clear that the teacher's observation must count as a part of the test.

The causes of defective vision reported are numerous. It is of much interest to note that only one reply gives bad lighting of schoolrooms as a cause. Lack of proper ventilation, lack of out-door life, bad postures in sitting, the habit of holding books too near the eyes, poor print, and the constant use of the eyes, are all given as causes, every one of which nearly all teachers are aware of, but they are noted here because the removal of these causes lies largely with the teachers and principals of the schools.

The causes of deafness as given show little connection with schoolroom life, and their prevention lies rather in the hands of parents and physicians.

A fact worth attention is that the State of Connecticut requires tests of the eyesight of school children every three years by means of Snellen's test types.

In Philadelphia, Jersey City, and Yonkers regular medical inspectors or specialists test the sight and hearing of all school children. In New York and Boston, while every child is not tested, all backward children are given a thorough examination by specialists. In Chicago a regular child study department is maintained, the head of which has charge of the work of testing the sight and hearing of the children.

At the last meeting of the American Medical Association the following recommendation was passed:

“Resolved, That it is advised by the American Medical Association that measures be taken by the various school authorities and boards of education, boards of health, and if possible, state legislatures, to secure examinations of the eyes and ears of all school children in this country, with a view to suitable treatment for the relief of ophthalmologic and otologic imperfections.”

In conclusion the committee reports that it believes periodical tests of the sight and hearing of all school children, including those in the kindergartens, should be made in every city of the United States in order to discover cases of defective vision and hearing.

It believes that these tests should be conducted where possible by regular medical inspectors or specialists, but that they may be conducted satisfactorily by the teachers, if they themselves are first instructed by a specialist.

It believes that the parents of all children who are thus found defective should be notified, and the child, if examined first by a teacher, should be sent to a specialist. As many of the defects of sight are directly caused by school life it does not seem proper to leave the matter to the authority of parents alone.

The committee believes that to secure uniformity, Snellen's test types should be used as a part of the test of sight, and the ordinary voice, as used in the tests in

Initiators of Detective Night and Hearing.

NAME	DATE	TEST	RESULT	REMARKS
SIGHT	10	10	10	10
HEARING	12	12	12	12
SIGHT	14	14	14	14
HEARING	16	16	16	16
SIGHT	18	18	18	18
HEARING	20	20	20	20

The city of Worcester, should be employed in the examination for defective hearing.

The committee believes that these statistics should be collected at regular intervals; that it is not likely it will be done by the Bureau of Education; that the National Educational Association might do it through a permanent committee, but it points out that there is no provision of funds to carry out such a work.

Finally, the committee urges that the *causes* of defective sight and hearing should be investigated, with a view to educating children, parents, and teachers on the subject, and thus preventing, as far as possible, such defects among our school children.

Reported causes of defects of sight: Astigmatism,* hypermetropia,* myopia,* acute inflammation,* bad furniture, bad posture at desk, congenital causes, constant use of eyes, defective light at home, holding books too near eyes, lack of outdoor exercise, poor food, poor print, poor ventilation of schoolrooms, neglect of parents and teachers.

Reported causes of defects of hearing: Adenoid growths, catarrh, congenital causes, falls, measles, neglect of parents, scarlet fever.

F. W. BOOTH, Chairman,
O. H. BURRITT,
F. PARKE LEWIS,
CLARENCE J. BLAKE,
PERCIVAL HALL,
Committee.

Miss MARY R. CAMPBELL, Secretary of the Board of Trustees and Educational Adviser for the Chicago School of Special Education, next read a paper on "The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children; Its Educational and Scientific Methods."

* These are, of course, the defects themselves, but were reported as causes.

Miss Campbell's paper, while interesting in many ways and worth careful study by all interested in the education of nervous and defective children, was not especially connected with the education of the deaf, and so no further mention of it will be made here.

The last address on the programme was given by Dr. M. A. GOLDSTEIN of St. Louis, Editor of the "Laryngoscope," on "The Teacher and the Defective Child." Dr. Goldstein confined his remarks entirely to the deaf child. He began by giving a short sketch of the evolution of the education of the deaf, with which teachers of the deaf, it is to be hoped, are quite familiar, and made the statement that the growth of speech teaching is one of the phases of that evolution.

The rest of his address was largely devoted to a description of the method used by Dr. Urbantschitsch of Vienna in teaching the deaf aurally.

This method Dr. Goldstein studied in Vienna in 1894, and, returning to St. Louis, he employed it in teaching a number of girls in St. Joseph's School for the Deaf.

In the first place, he said, the child is assumed to be totally deaf—though total deafness is a rarity, and there are always many children with hearing possibilities in our schools.

Dr. Goldstein here illustrated the method with a partially deaf girl whom he had formerly taught aurally.

Beginning with *a*, he continued, which is the first sound to be heard, it is repeated, even for weeks, till the child can hear and give it himself. Then *ō*, *ōō*, *ā*, *ē*, and other vowel sounds are developed and differentiated, perhaps in three or four months. Gradually the latent hearing will respond to the vocal gymnastics.

Then follow series of different vowel sounds, and then the combination of simple consonant sounds with the vowels. Here much time must often be spent in getting

the difference of sounds correctly understood. When mistakes are made by the pupil the mistake and the correct form should be repeated till the difference becomes clear.

After this come words of one syllable, the development of consonants and sentences. Then follows one of the most important lessons of all, the development of perception of inflection of the voice.

The girl with whom these experiments have been made is not at all an exceptional case. The schools are full of such pupils. Teachers and pupils in the future will have the help of scientists in developing methods of teaching, and pupils in schools for the deaf who have hearing will be educated in a different way from those who have none.

Then followed an exhibition of the acousticon, which is used in teaching children of the McCowen Oral School aurally. This instrument is an invention of Mr. Hutchinson, also inventor of the akoulalion.

Several children from the school were present and were tested by Dr. Goldstein with the voice, and by Miss Bingham with the acousticon.

One child with considerable hearing did equally well both ways. Another child was found in the audience whose hearing had never been used, and who was considered totally deaf by her teachers.

Dr. Goldstein was unable to make her hear sounds with the unaided voice, but she seemed to catch the sound of *a* with the acousticon, although this was not made certain. Miss Bingham then started to use the instructicon (supposed to be a more powerful instrument of the same kind) with the child, but it broke down.

In conclusion Dr. Goldstein said he believed the instruments exhibited could, in some cases, reach children who could not hear the voice alone, and develop their hearing till the voice might be used. But he insisted that the beginning should be made with the vowel sounds, as he

had illustrated, rather than with words and sentences as is done in the McCowen School.

Professor Hall for the Committee on Nominations reported the following officers for the coming year :

For President, Miss MARGARET BANCROFT, Head of the Haddenfield Training School, New Jersey ; for Vice-President, Mr. J. H. FREEMAN, Superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind ; for Secretary, Miss ANNA SCHAFFER, State Inspector of Schools for the Deaf, Wisconsin.

They were unanimously elected.

Resolutions were passed thanking Dr. Goldstein and Miss Campbell for their addresses, and the retiring officers for their efficient work.

The meeting then adjourned.

It is to be regretted that the attendance at the meetings was so small. The programme was carefully arranged and the papers well prepared. It is to be hoped they will be widely read when published in the Proceedings of the National Educational Association.

It seems, in spite of the attractions of low rates and exceptional advantages in studying educational exhibits, that great expositions are not the best places for educational meetings. There are too many counter-attractions and too much to wear out those who attend.

However the meeting was successful in carrying out smoothly all the work laid out for it, and in presenting to the world several valuable papers on the education of children for whom little was done in ancient times, and for whom there is yet left much to be done.

PERCIVAL HALL,
Professor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS AND THE SEVENTH CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE DEAF AT ST. LOUIS.

THE International Congress of the Deaf, which held its sessions in St. Louis during the week of August 20-27, was undoubtedly the largest gathering of the deaf ever assembled for purposes of business, and the Seventh Convention of the National Association of the Deaf, which occupied one day of the week, was, by far, the largest one ever held in the United States.

The Congress proper was not so national in point of representation as could have been wished. Only Germany, Switzerland, and Canada among foreign countries were represented by delegates. But papers were read from France, Great Britain, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, and Italy. On the other hand, the Convention of the National Association was the most representative gathering of the deaf that this country has ever seen. Fully thirty-five of the States and Territories were represented. Delegates were present from the most remote sections of the nation—from New England, from North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, from Texas and Oklahoma, from California, from Minnesota. At previous conventions of the Association the local element has largely predominated, but on this occasion the outside attendance and membership largely exceeded the local.

The first meeting of the Congress was held Saturday afternoon, August 20, in Library Hall of the Halls of Congress on the Exposition grounds. The day had been set aside by the authorities of the Exposition as "Gallaudet Day," to pay a tribute to the memory of Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. As the Congress was held under the auspices of the National Association of the Deaf, the President of the Association presided at all the business

meetings during the week. In his opening remarks the President drew a parallel between Thomas Jefferson and Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. The former had purchased from France the grand domain of Louisiana. The latter had obtained from France the means of opening to the deaf of America the domain of knowledge. Both had accomplished their work against the opposition and skepticism of a large part of the public. Both had shown judgment and foresight far in advance of their time.

Several leading officials of the Fair, including President Francis, had been invited to address the Congress, but all sent letters of regret, owing to the pressure of other duties, except the Secretary, Mr. WALTER F. STEVENS, who was present and gave an excellent and appropriate address of welcome.

It had been the hope of all to receive an address in person from Dr. E. M. GALLAUDET, and universal was the disappointment expressed that he was unable to attend. But he sent an excellent message which was received by the Congress with frequent applause. At its close Dr. Gallaudet was given an ovation in the form of a "Chautauqua salute" from the hundreds present. The message is published in the present number of the *Annals*.

The President then called upon Mr. W. K. ARGO, Superintendent of the Colorado School for the Deaf, to address the Congress, and he responded in an appropriate and eloquent manner. Addresses were also given by Mr. E. A. HODGSON, of New York, in behalf of the National Association, by Mr. F. R. GRAY, of Pittsburg, in behalf of the Gallaudet Alumni Association, and by Rev. J. H. CLOUD, of St. Louis, in behalf of the local deaf. Rev. A. W. MANN, of Cleveland, made a brief address, urging the deaf not to forget, in their tribute to Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, to give a place to Laurent Clerc, who brought the sign language to America, and who was the first deaf teacher of the deaf in this country. This closed the formal proceedings of the first day of the Congress.

On Sunday religious services were held in various parts of the city, at which deaf clergymen of different denominations officiated, and in the evening Mr. ROBERT P. MCGREGOR, of Ohio, gave a lecture on "The Fall of Jerusalem" before a large and appreciative audience.

The Congress assembled pursuant to the regular programme Monday morning in the assembly room of the Central High School. The President opened the proceedings with a brief address, in which he extended a fraternal greeting to the foreign delegates, and said that the interests of the deaf throughout the world were identical, irrespective of race or nationality. He further specified certain points concerning which it behooved the deaf of the world to take united action.

The Committee on Programme, bearing in mind that this was the first International Congress of the Deaf during the twentieth century, had assigned topics in such a manner as to give a kind of retrospective view of the condition of the deaf throughout the world, to the end that the Congress might the better deliberate and determine as to the future.

First on the programme was a paper on "The Intellectual Status of the Deaf in the United States," by Dr. A. G. DRAPER, of Gallaudet College, published in the present number of the *Annals*. The paper was well received, and considerable discussion followed, all of which was in accord with the views expressed therein.

Following this came a paper on "The Intellectual, Industrial, Social, and Moral Status of the Deaf in Great Britain," by Mr. GEORGE FRANKLAND, of London. It was full of interest and value, and at its close it was filed on the minutes without discussion. The Congress then adjourned for the day.

Tuesday forenoon was devoted to a business meeting of the National Association.

In a formal address the President reviewed its work and

called attention to important matters that required the attention and action of the body, such as the question of methods, the sign language, newspaper exaggeration, etc. He made special mention of what he called the "vagabond evil," meaning the injury done to the respectable deaf by disreputable deaf persons, or imposters pretending to be deaf, who go about preying upon the charity of the public. He also referred strongly to the need of a high standard among deaf ministers to the deaf, and urged the deaf to protest against unworthy persons entering the ministry.

Reports of officers and of standing committees were read, and then followed the election of officers, which resulted as follows :

President, GEO. W. VEDITZ, of Colorado.

First Vice-President, D. W. GEORGE, of Illinois.

Second Vice-President, Mrs. J. W. BARRETT, of Iowa.

Third Vice-President, O. J. WHILDIN, of Maryland.

Fourth Vice-President, J. F. DONNELLY, of New York.

Secretary, J. H. CLOUD, of Missouri.

Treasurer, N. FIELD MORROW, of Indiana.

Wednesday morning the Congress proper resumed the programme of papers. A paper by Mr. OLOF HANSON, of Seattle, Washington, on "The Industrial Status of the Deaf in the United States," was read. It is published in the present number of the *Annals*.

In this connection reference should be made to the report of the Committee on the Industrial Status of the Deaf—Messrs. WARREN ROBINSON, of Wisconsin, P. L. AXLING, of Washington, and A. L. PACH, of New York. For five years the Committee had been at work collecting statistics relating to the industrial status of the deaf after leaving school. The report of results was submitted to the Association, and it contains much that is of great interest and value. It is probably the most useful and valuable work ever accomplished by the National Associ-

ation. It was moved and carried unanimously that this branch of work be established as a permanent Bureau of Industrial Statistics, and that the same committee, with two more members added, be continued until the next national convention. The President named Messrs. O. H. REGENSBURG, of Illinois, and ANTON SCHROEDER, of Minnesota, as the additional members of the Committee.

Papers on "The Intellectual, Industrial, Social, and Moral Status of the Deaf in Germany," were read by Mr. ALBIN M. WATZULIK, of Sachsen-Altenburg, and Mr. MARTIN CZEMPIN, of Berlin; and papers on the same topic by Messrs. HENRI GAILLARD and HENRI JEANVOINE of France, as well as one from Italy, were filed on the minutes.

Thursday morning the Congress continued its session. First on the programme was a paper on "The Social Status of the Deaf in the United States," by Dr. T. F. Fox, of New York. It is published in the present number of the *Annals*.

This paper struck the key-note of the Congress, and the applause was frequent and prolonged. A full discussion followed.

A paper on "The Intellectual, Industrial, Social, and Moral Status of the Deaf in Canada," written by Mr. HERBERT W. ROBERTS, of Toronto, was read.

Friday morning the programme opened with a paper on "The Moral and Religious Status of the Deaf in the United States," by Rev. P. J. HASENSTAD, of Chicago. It was replete with statistics which the writer had been at some pains to collect. Lengthy discussion followed.

Papers written by Mr. LARS A. HAVSTAD, for Norway and Denmark, and by Mr. G. TITZE, for Sweden, showing the intellectual, industrial, social, and moral status of the deaf in those countries, were filed on the minutes without reading.

The report of the Committee on Literature was read and accepted, and the work was established as a perma-

ment Bureau of Information, with the same committee in charge until the next convention. The object of the Bureau is to correct newspaper misrepresentation as far as possible, and be prepared to furnish information by means of circulars and correspondence whenever and wherever it may be needed.

The Committee on Resolutions made its report. Strongly worded resolutions endorsing the combined system and the proper use of the sign language, favoring an increase in the proportion of duly qualified deaf teachers, condemning the efforts of oralists to promote their cause by prejudicing the public, deprecating the introduction of sectarianism in associations of the deaf, and expressing sympathy for the deaf of Ireland who receive little government support in their education, were passed with entire unanimity, as well as the usual resolutions of thanks. The Congress then adjourned without day.

This Congress was not the only gathering of the deaf in St. Louis. The Illinois Gallaudet Union held a convention in East St. Louis immediately preceding the Congress. The Missouri Association of the Deaf also held a large convention during the week, and the Gallaudet College Alumni Association held two business meetings. The last-named association revised its constitution and elected officers as follows :

President, T. F. Fox, of New York.

First Vice-President, THOMAS SHERIDAN, of Minnesota.

Second Vice-President, CLOA LAMSON, of Ohio.

Secretary, L. A. DIVINE, of Nebraska.

Treasurer, J. S. LONG, of Iowa.

This gathering was the largest of its kind yet held.

The social side of the Congress was amply provided for by the local committee in the form of several receptions, a grand ball, a banquet, and a river excursion. On Wednesday afternoon there was a meeting at the French

Pavilion on the Exposition grounds in memory of De l'Épée, and an address was made by the French Commissioner General. In the evening there was a meeting at the German Pavilion in memory of Samuel Heinicke.

It is worthy of note that although this Congress was the largest business gathering of the deaf ever held, and although representatives of all methods of instruction were present, the proceedings were marked by harmony and almost perfect unanimity of opinion. There is no question that the educated deaf the world over stand shoulder to shoulder on all questions that vitally affect their interests. This great and representative gathering of the deaf in St. Louis during the week of August 20-27 is confidently expected to be a center from which will radiate influences tending to the advancement of the deaf not only of America, but of the world.

JAMES L. SMITH,

Instructor in the Minnesota School, Faribault, Minn.

A MESSAGE TO THE CONGRESS OF THE DEAF.*

BRANFORD, CONN., *July 4, 1904.*

Dr. J. L. SMITH,

President, etc.

DEAR DR. SMITH: Remembering my promise to send you a message for the Congress of the Deaf, I take advantage of a quiet morning on Green Island to keep my engagement.

I need hardly assure the members of the Congress that I deeply regret my inability to give them a personal greeting on the day chosen to honor the memory of my revered father. Had I not planned some time ago to spend most of my vacation in Europe, I should certainly have accepted

* Read before the International Congress of the Deaf, St. Louis, August 20, 1904.

the invitation of your committee to be present at the meeting of the Congress.

I have read with interest the published programme, and congratulate the committee on its selection of subjects and its choice of those who will lead in the discussion of them. I am confident the decisions of the Congress will be such as to deserve the respect and support of the friends of the deaf everywhere.

The old question of methods may come up for a vote. If it does, the platform of the "Combined System," adopted, I believe, by every congress of the deaf in Europe as well as in this country, will, without doubt, be reaffirmed.

Ever since the time of the first suggestion of a Combined System, which I made in 1867 after a careful study of the leading schools in Europe, I have held my mind open to conviction for a change of view. From time to time I have inspected pure oral schools in Europe and in our own country, to determine, if possible, whether the measure of success in efforts to *teach all the deaf to speak* would justify the claim that all methods besides the oral method ought to be banished from their schools. These examinations have not disclosed any greater percentage of success than appeared in 1867.

My conviction, then formed, remains unchanged, therefore, that a proportion of the deaf approaching, and in some instances probably exceeding, fifty per cent., cannot attain that measure of success in speech which will justify the time and labor devoted to that branch of their education.

I have taken pains to meet, in recent years, many educated deaf-mutes in the countries of Europe where the oral method is almost exclusively followed. The testimony of these orally taught deaf persons fully confirms the view just expressed.

My opinion is, therefore, as decided as ever that a system which, while giving an *opportunity* to every deaf child

to acquire speech, and careful oral instruction to all shown to be capable of success, makes use of manual methods to that extent which the varying conditions of deaf children plainly demand, is greatly to be preferred to one which holds to a single method to the exclusion of all others.

A subject has been considerably discussed of late in the school papers, which will very likely occupy the attention of the Congress. I refer to the use of the sign language. Some of those who would abolish it from the chapel, as well as from the schoolroom, have claimed me as supporting their views because I once said in a convention of teachers that "the sign language is a dangerous thing." Many things of great benefit and value to mankind may be misused and so become "dangerous." It is true that the sign language may be used by injudicious teachers to an extent that will interfere with the proper acquisition of verbal language by deaf children. But this by no means justifies its exclusion.

My opinion is that, even with pupils capable of the greatest success in speech, a certain use of signs, especially for chapel services and lectures, is highly beneficial. This fact is recognized to-day by more than a few German teachers. At my last visit to the school founded by Heinicke, I learned, a good deal to my surprise, that the sign language was made use of in chapel exercises. In my judgment lectures and religious services for the deaf, whether for children and youth in school or for adults, can be given more impressively and more acceptably by means of the language of signs, *well rendered*, than in any other way.

In the schoolroom it is well to minimize the use of signs as far as possible. But they have their place here; often when spelled, written, or spoken words fail to make the teacher's meaning clear. In 1897 I found a German teacher in an oral school giving new words to his class. He wrote the words on the blackboard, spoke them, and

then made a clear De l'Epée sign for each one. I asked him why he did this. "To make sure the children understand the meaning," said he. I told him I was gratified to find such a practice prevailing in an oral school.

But I must not make this letter too long. Pray give my warmest greeting to all the members of the Congress. Though far from them in body, I shall be with them in spirit on Gallaudet day. If some of my old college boys will get to the top of a high building, they may catch a direct message from me by "wireless telegraphy," "telepathy," or some other means. Whether this works or not, you may be sure my heart will beat in sympathy with the heart of the Congress.

Always most sincerely yours,

E. M. GALLAUDET.

THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF IN AMERICA.*

RELATIVE POLITICAL POSITION OF AMERICA.

IN not a few respects the present position of the United States among the nations of the world is comparable with that of the Roman empire at the zenith of its power.

Not many years ago what the United States would say, think, or do in any given event was a matter of complete indifference to European peoples and rulers. Their opinion of America in general was expressed by Sydney Smith's flippant query, "Who reads an American book?"

This attitude has been changed, almost in a twinkling. To-day no European people or potentate thinks of taking any important step in commerce, war, politics, or foreign relations, without considering anxiously what the United States will probably say, think, or do, supposing that step taken.

* Read before the International Congress of the Deaf, St. Louis, August 22, 1904.

With the exception of some events occurring very recently this pre-eminence has, happily, been reached by wholly peaceful means. It is the natural and almost inevitable result of the possession of a virgin and almost boundless continent, rich in mine, field and forest, by a people homogeneous in spirit though various in blood, imbued with democratic principles, and, until very lately, untrammelled in trade and with the utmost freedom to pursue individual ambition in any field of effort.

RELATIVE POSITION IN EDUCATION.

In the domains of education, art, and literature, we may not indeed claim such unquestioned influence for America as in the lines above mentioned; yet in certain departments of those domains the claim will hold good. One of these departments is the

EDUCATION OF THE DEAF-BLIND.

This has been frequently attempted in the old world, but much less generally than in America, where the attempt was contemporaneous with efforts to educate the deaf. Originating in the case of Julia Brace, and culminating in that of Helen Keller, public and private sympathy has gone out to each victim of this double or triple affliction whose sad fate became known. In many other lands people have seen such victims and sighed that

“ Of all the woes mankind inherits,
It surely most compassion merits
To be both blind and deaf ; ”

but it was reserved for America to make a public and general task of easing this especial woe by giving its victims the boon of education. In not a few cases besides the two mentioned the task has been crowned with a measure of success that commands the wonder and the admiration of thoughtful and tender-hearted persons in every land. Another of these departments is the

education, but not with the power to earn bread, is only to prepare for them a sharper sting in poverty, a more poignant shame in dependence. It is to be hoped that the paper to be read to the Congress on this subject will show that the schools are alive to this greatest of needs and sparing no effort to meet it ; and every deaf person should exert all his influence to promote this aim of the schools.

THE SIGN LANGUAGE.

Various causes, chiefly the increased use of speech and of the manual alphabet, have combined during the period under review to lessen in some degree the prevalence and in a greater degree the perfection of the sign language. The language remains, but fewer deaf people and still fewer instructors of them become accomplished masters of it. Perhaps the coming generation of the deaf will see fewer, if any, men like the Turners, Gallaudets, Peets, Gilletts, and Noyeses, who by means of this language have stirred the hearts, kindled the emotions, uplifted the souls, touched the humor, and swayed the minds of multitudes of the deaf. If that be so, it is one of the prices that the deaf must pay for improvement—or efforts at improvement—in other directions. No fear need be felt, however, that the sign language will not survive in vigor, for it is as rooted in human nature as the passions and emotions and aspirations of which it is the swift, easy, capacious, and accommodating vehicle.

DEAF TEACHERS.

In the United States, taking schools for the deaf of every kind, more than $16\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* of the instructors are deaf. If the comparison be confined to well-equipped public schools the percentage is decidedly greater. Great as it is, it is less than formerly, and probably destined to grow still less. Notwithstanding, no fear need be felt that properly qualified deaf people will not always find

the new world with a certain faintheartedness. Never has the question of the education of the deaf appeared more difficult to me than since my visit to the American schools. But at the same time the insufficiency of the pure oral method was never so clear in my mind, and never did I feel the necessity of a reorganization of the education of the deaf in Germany as imperiously as now, after the exciting impressions I received from the flourishing condition of the education of the deaf in the United States." And Ferreri, after a like thorough investigation, in an article bearing the significant title of "Victorious America," says, "Here I find the best schools for the deaf. * * * They (the Americans) are doing the best which it is possible to do in the present condition of science; and in a not far distant future they will be our guide in the progressive development of our special line of education."

The deaf people of America and their instructors may well feel thankful that Providence has placed their lot in a land thus highly commended by qualified observers from the old world; it should not, however, inflate them, but rather inspire them with determination to see that it shall be deserved—that no efforts of theirs shall be spared to carry the education and all the best interests of the deaf onward and upward toward perfection.

AURICULAR INSTRUCTION.

Within the last two decades there have been marked developments in this country in the education of the deaf. One of these is the systematic endeavor to keep alive and increase by use and practice latent powers of hearing among certain pupils. This, like the education of the deaf-blind, is largely an American enterprise. Some individual experiments had been made in France, but long abandoned, when Mr. James A. Gillespie, of Nebraska, took up the work in 1881. Since then the effort has been

pushed in many schools. It has stimulated the invention of devices to aid hearing. An association to promote it was formed in 1894. In 1903 there were 100 pupils in 18 schools taught wholly or chiefly by auricular means, besides many others receiving auricular training.

It is true that this work affects only a comparatively small number of pupils; yet to these few how great the boon! They may be graduated as hard-of-hearing hearing persons; may receive instruction, at school and in business, through the ear; may by the same means enter into social relations, at least with individuals; and any powers which they possess of understanding speech by sight will be strongly reinforced. This is, therefore, a development that should receive the fullest sympathy and support of all the deaf.

USE OF THE MANUAL ALPHABET.

Within the same period there has been a decided movement to use the manual alphabet as a means of instruction. One large school and departments in two others, these last among the largest in the country, have made it, with writing, the basis of instruction. In many other schools individual instructors have striven to implant the habit of its use among pupils. The movement is sound in reason and powerful in effect. When a pupil tries to tell in words his wants, pleasures, woes, emotions, and adventures he tries to think in words; and when he has gained the power to think in words and express his thought in words with measurable clearness his education is already half accomplished. This, therefore, is another development which merits the hearty appreciation and aid of all the deaf.

SPEECH AND THE UNDERSTANDING OF SPEECH BY SIGHT.

Great as have been the developments in the above directions they have yet been exceeded by that in the teach-

ing of articulation and the understanding of speech by sight. This movement began somewhat earlier than the period above named, but during that period it has increased with great rapidity. In 1883 there were but 14 professedly oral schools in the country, while in 1903 there were 63. (Many of these are, it is true, merely classes rather than schools, in some cases almost consisting of the ideal oral school of one pupil.) Taking schools of every kind the number of pupils in professedly oral schools has increased in the above period from 9+ to 23+ *per cent.* If the comparison be confined to well-established public schools of reputation the increase has been less marked, being from 7+ to 14+ *per cent.* In this comparison no account is taken of the large number of pupils in schools not professedly oral who are taught speech, or are taught wholly or chiefly by speech, because statistics are not obtainable for the earlier part of the period; but it is known that the number of these has also very greatly increased, and at the present time they far outnumber those taught in professedly oral schools.

This increased attention to speech is another development that merits and should receive the sincere approval of all intelligent deaf persons. It is a fact that the cultivation of speech was too long neglected in American schools. Even the speech of semi-mutes suffered by this neglect. Every one must rejoice that this is no longer true—that every pupil who can speak, and every pupil who cannot speak intelligibly but seems capable of learning to do so, can have his powers of speech preserved or evoked, and improved to the utmost.

On the other hand no fears need be felt that this development amounting to a reform—for such it is—will finally go beyond reasonable bounds. Many have had such fears. About the time of the Milan Convention, for instance, the sign language was to pass utterly out of existence; the manual alphabet was to be a thing unknown;

writing was to be dispensed with as far as possible; the great minds that had labored for the deaf nearly a century and brought about such beneficent results were, with those results, to be discredited; the orally taught were to enter schools and colleges for the hearing, and by virtue of oral training shine in contrast with all who had not that training, etc., etc. These fears were groundless. None of them have been realized. None will be. If the reform has seemed rapid, it is because it began suddenly and almost from a standstill. The American people may be trusted not only to adopt any improvement upon past methods, but also to hold fast that which is good in those methods.

DAY SCHOOLS.

There has been a decided increase in the number of day, denominational, and private schools, it being from 16 in 1883 to 71 in 1903. In so far as these schools serve as feeders to organized institutions which are fully equipped to teach trades as well as all other branches of education, they may become a benefit; but in so far as they prevent attendance upon the well-equipped institutions they may become an ultimate injury to deaf children. Although the great majority of them have been set up as a result of oralist enthusiasm and to promote oral aims, nevertheless the most competent and experienced *quasi* oralists and pronounced oralists alike concur in this view. Of the former, the late Dr. Gordon, in the ablest and most exhaustive paper he produced, sums up the matter by showing that "special institutions remain a necessity for the great mass of deaf children, and they continue to offer superior results, with the greatest economy of time, money, and men. And this is true regardless of methods, systems, or devices of instruction"; of the latter, Dr. Crouter of the Mt. Airy School, comes to practically the same conclusion in his Report for 1902-'03.

FEMALE TEACHERS.

There has been a very great increase in the number of female compared with the number of male teachers in the period named. The former now outnumber the latter more than 2 to 1. This preponderance is especially marked in oral schools. More than 85 *per cent.* of the teachers in the Mt. Airy School are women. In the Clarke Institution *all* are women; and of the 77 teachers sent out by its training class all but 2 have been women. In the numerous day schools begun here and there the teachers are, almost to a woman, women.

This is a development that obtains in schools for the hearing also. It is a development to be regretted upon very high grounds. Women are naturally fitted by talent, tact, and patience, to be teachers of little children and of primary classes; but these children, arrived at youth and approaching young manhood and womanhood, need for their fullest growth daily contact with the sterner attributes of human nature, the more logical faculties, and the stricter sense of justice that are masculine characteristics. Observant women admit this. So do managers of oral schools, as witness the remarks of President Carter of the Clarke Corporation in the Report of that school for 1903.

A reform in this matter must be of slow growth. Yet the formation and maintenance of a correct public opinion upon it may be trusted finally to bring about an improvement. The Normal Department of Gallaudet College has done something to start such an improvement. Of its graduates more than 82 *per cent.* have been men.

TRADES TEACHING.

This paper would not be complete without a reference to industrial training. In no small sense it is the most vital of all instruction to the deaf. Endowing them with

uals. Such cases, however, are the exception rather than the rule.

The deaf quite generally join labor unions where the nature of their occupation permits. Labor unions have done much good in securing higher wages and shorter hours, and in most cases it is to the advantage of the deaf to join them. Some unions, however, are controlled by demagogues, whose chief aim is to stir up trouble, and the deaf should be warned to keep out of such unions. They should be taught to look upon employers as friends rather than as enemies, which latter seems to be the view taken by many labor agitators of to-day.

For some of the information on which the above statements are based I am indebted to the courtesy of the Committee on Industrial Statistics. Definite information regarding the occupations of the deaf is useful and interesting, and the work of this committee should be continued and extended.

Perhaps the best evidence of the prosperity of the educated deaf is to be found in the large number who own their homes. While accurate data on this point are not available, probably from two to three thousand deaf in the United States own the homes in which they live.

The gratifying prosperity of the deaf generally is in a great measure due to the wise policy of the schools in teaching trades. In this policy the schools for the deaf were pioneers. The public schools have since adopted this policy in a modified form, and manual training is now a recognized part of the educational system in every progressive community.

The industrial departments of our schools are generally well managed, and as well equipped as the funds will permit. According to my observations deaf instructors as a rule do the best work. There are exceptions. I have seen some very good hearing instructors, and some mighty poor deaf ones. But the rule is the other way. It would

be a good plan once in a while to give the industrial instructor a year's leave of absence to knock about and learn the new wrinkles in his line, and ascertain what his pupils need to learn at school.

To attain the highest efficiency, however, the whole system of industrial training in our schools should be radically changed. In the early days of the schools many of the pupils were almost grown-up men and women, and the need of teaching them trades was obvious. Now, on the other hand, the pupils are mostly quite young, and generally too immature to learn definite trades while at school.

The occupations which the deaf can follow are many and varied, whereas the number of trades that can be taught at school are few. Many of these occupations require expensive machinery which the schools cannot provide. How to bring the deaf directly into the occupations for which they are adapted is the problem. The solution must be found in some kind of apprenticeship.

Industrial training at school is valuable not so much for the instruction given in particular trades as for the training which it gives to the eye and the hand and the habits of industry thus formed. Its chief object should be to furnish relaxation for the mind and to ascertain the natural bent of the child. For this purpose sloyd, or manual training, is preferable to set trades. This department should be extended so as to include not only working in wood but also in metal, clay, leather, etc. Considerable freedom should be allowed. Working in metal, such as with wire, old clock wheels, etc., would discover the child with a mechanical turn of mind. Clay-modeling would reveal aptitude for carving in wood or stone, and for sculpture. One of the most gifted sculptors in the country to-day did not discover his talent till he was upward of twenty-five years old. What if he had found his calling when a boy?

Real trades instruction should begin after the school course is completed. A few trades can be taught at school through a post-graduate course. But I think the schools should go further and by keeping in touch with large factories might apprentice the pupils and start them on such careers as are best suited to them.

There should be a traveling instructor who would go among the factories and look after the apprentices, and the literary or technical instruction connected with the work should be carried on through a systematic course of correspondence. The apprentices should serve without compensation, at least part of the time, and during the apprenticeship should still be under the direction of the school. On completing the course a certificate should be given stating the exact standing of the workman, and it should be given only for merit, so that in time the certificates would be of recognized value in seeking employment.

Such an instructor, being a State officer, would command more attention and be in far better position to secure suitable places for the deaf than the deaf themselves or their friends. It goes without saying that he should be a man of tact and common sense, and that he should be paid a salary equal to that of a good teacher.

The plan proposed need not cost the schools any more than the present system. The only expense would be for the instructor, who would take the place of several trades instructors. It would give the pupils a much wider range of occupation than the trades taught at school, for, as is known, only a small portion of the deaf actually follow the trades learned at school.

In this way I believe many deaf might be placed in positions which they could fill with credit to themselves and satisfaction to their employers. It would prevent many attempting occupations for which they are not fitted

and changing from one to another. It would give those possessing proper qualifications a chance to enter the right field, which they might never have otherwise.

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THE SOCIAL STATUS OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.*

“SOCIETY,” saith the text, “is the happiness of life;” still there is much counted social that is merely gregarious. Doubtless humanity is better company than a bare hillside; but not a little depends on how near we come to the humanity, and how near we come to the hill. At the best society is relative, and the inclination for or against it is much a matter of temperament and environment. Deaf men and women are controlled by these conditions to the same extent as other people, and the too general belief that the deaf shun social intercourse with the hearing is more imaginary than real.

A fundamental error was made in the past by considering the deaf as a special class, to be regarded, discussed, and legislated for as such, instead of plain human beings who, judged according to certain universal standards, belong to various classes in which those standards would place other members of the human family. This was an error of the early teachers, but it was excusable at the time in order to awaken public sympathy to a proper sense of the necessity of providing the deaf an education. Through their efforts the prevailing notion that the deaf were beyond the pale of intellectual improvement, and isolated from social life and activity, gave way to a comprehension of their real condition, and led to providing

*Read before the International Congress of the Deaf, St. Louis, August 25, 1904.

means for their uplifting. Later times have witnessed a further advance in the gradual removal of the idea of charity in connection with their education.

At the present day the American deaf do not regard themselves in the light of a class distinct from the general public, nor ask for sympathy because of their impediment. They would be considered as individuals, just as any other members of the community are considered. They would not be regarded as a separate class, but as a part of various classes to which their standing morally, mentally, and personally would assign them; to be estimated by the same standards and governed by the same rules. They ask that each be judged on his own merits and stand or fall on his own showing.

It may be asked, "Why, then, do the deaf assemble in associations and conventions; is this not making a 'class' of themselves?" To this we answer that to the superficial observer it may appear so, but a closer examination of the subject places the matter in its true light. There is much that the general public has to learn about the deaf, and this information, to be authentic, must come from the experience of the deaf themselves. One of their greatest teachers has happily put the matter in a nutshell when he made the prophetic utterance "that the problem in which they are personally so interested is eventually to be solved not by hearing and speaking theorists acting on outside lines and giving directions to the carrying out of predetermined evolutions, but by the consensus of opinion among the educated deaf-mutes themselves, acting from the inside, learning from a comparison of views the benefits conferred and the injuries inflicted upon them by wise and unwise training."

With the exception of service in the army and navy, and the performance of jury duty—for which he is incapacitated by his deafness—there are no legal obstacles to the deaf man performing the usual duties of citizen-

ship. We must acknowledge that, in a business sense, he is more or less hindered by his impediment in seeking positions in the civil service; he is also debarred by deafness from many fraternal organizations, and some life insurance companies consider him an extraordinary risk and require an additional premium to the standard rate for insuring him. These are the main inconveniences with which he must put up, always remembering that deafness itself is a serious handicap under any condition.

While we are to consider the social status of the deaf from a sociological aspect only, we cannot overlook the fact that education is the foundation of social elevation, and its possession or the lack of it must influence the attitude of society toward them, controlling the conditions peculiarly affecting for good or ill their daily lives and their relations with the community at large. To the superior standard of American schools for the deaf, and especially to Gallaudet College, which has given such marked results in the higher education of the deaf of our own country, and is exerting a permanent influence in circles beyond the sea, we owe the leading position which the American deaf hold to-day. For the assertion that the deaf of this country are on a superior plane to those abroad we have the authority not only of the International Congress of Instructors of the Deaf at Paris in 1900, but of foreign deaf men and women who have had opportunities for observing the conditions here and abroad.

Coming directly to the social intercourse of the deaf with the hearing, experience proves that where deaf people are courteous and affable, society, with few exceptions, will not permit the lack of hearing to influence it unfavorably. The educated deaf person possessing the usual social accomplishments of dancing, knowledge of card games, and familiarity with social usages, who has conversational powers and uses speech freely, and is not too

shy, may get along very nicely in the society of the hearing. The deaf of the gentler sex, possibly from the contrast they present to the hearing society woman, are often very popular at society functions, especially among elderly men. Even the deaf who do not use speech freely, but resort to tablet and pencil, are not under much restraint when in the society of the cultured. Gallaudet College students of the seventies and eighties more than held their own in the circles of Washington society, and were not much worried by their deafness. Not a few of them subsequently married hearing women they had met at social functions.

Very much does depend upon the individual himself as to the extent he succeeds in hearing society. He must be fortified for embarrassments, and the neglect and impatience of those unaware of his impediment. Then, people are often under restraint when receiving any one whom they must treat differently from the usual run of visitors, and it may take longer to break the ice, so to speak. Some people, especially women, have decided objection to writing, and having been misled by too confident oral partisans, they may consider that all the deaf ought to speak and read the lips equally well. We who go through the mill more or less regularly know to our sorrow the mortification experienced by being forced to risk blundering, through guessing much that is said. There are deaf persons who speak fairly well who will not speak before many people. They are fearful of slips in pronunciation, or of speaking too loud to be agreeable, and prefer pad and pencil. This is the case even with semi-mutes, though it is not a common occurrence. Most of the latter use speech on all occasions and then, strange to relate, run the risk of being regarded as "playing possum."

There are among the deaf many of a sensitive temperament who are particular as to whom they shall visit or

receive. They are naturally averse to keeping up relations with people who do not appear to care for them, or who show a disposition to avoid conversing with them, while they are careful to cultivate friendship with people who are disposed to receive them cordially, especially when making calls. Still, on the whole, they do not shun the society of the hearing. The deaf can make themselves too prominent when they forget that people are sometimes tired and would be left alone. It is the wise deaf person who detects signs of this trait in time and respects it; nor does its appearance necessarily imply that, at such times, our hearing friends are rude or uncivil. There are exceptions to this, it is true, but the intelligent deaf person should know how to treat such cases.

When we consider the deaf "in the lump" we find conditions somewhat different from that among the more highly educated. In cities where foreign populations predominate, men and women are often unable to read and write; many do not speak the English language. It is a fact that in certain sections of New York city gestures play almost as important a part in the daily transactions of the hearing as spoken language. These people, among whom a large number of deaf children are found, are too much occupied with the serious side of life to entertain their deaf acquaintances beyond an occasional gesture. And when they are able to meet the deaf half way, the double-hand alphabet with all sorts of gestural embellishments is the chief mode of communication. Orally taught deaf seem to get on fairly well with their parents and relatives who talk to them. Beyond the immediate family relations *conversation* through speech and lip-reading is not entirely free, exceptional cases excluded. I personally favor oral instruction with all the deaf that can profit by it, and always use speech myself, but having witnessed many attempts at oral conversation between

deaf-mutes and their hearing friends, I must say it did not always appear entirely satisfactory to either party; writing or the manual alphabet is safer. Except where a particle of hearing remains, and this explains not a few instances of remarkable lip-reading, writing and the manual alphabet are the only absolutely sure means of intelligent conversation between the deaf and the hearing. Where a deaf person speaks plainly and the auditor uses the manual alphabet we have the ideal mode of a free exchange of thought.

One thing frequently observed is that many of the deaf from the humbler classes, when they leave school, are educated and have manners and behavior above their home surroundings, and seek to better their condition socially. On the other hand we have those among us who are rude and overbearing in their manners, or lack of manners. In this respect the deaf are very much as other people. Some have peculiarities which become more noticeable because of deafness. So we meet nuisances who are a terror to us all, people who will grimace and make strange guttural noises, attracting the attention of others to an offensive degree. Then there is the mere acquaintance who will familiarly accost his hearing or deaf friends at any and all times, and expect to be treated with the utmost cordiality. This may be "fellow-feeling," but it is scarcely agreeable. We must not expect to be indulged, nor to break down all social barriers, just because we happen to be deaf.

While we acknowledge the presence among the deaf of some unpleasant characters, and would correct their idiosyncrasies, we reach a different phase that requires serious consideration as affecting the mental as well as the social condition of the deaf in humble life. Honest reliable statistics show that the prevailing system of educating the deaf in the United States to-day is the American "Combined System," using any and all methods for

the best fitting of the deaf for usefulness and intelligent citizenship. Speech, the manual alphabet, signs, pictures, and written language are used in proper proportion. Competent judges, after impartial observation of European and American schools, and from personal contact with graduates of both, affirm that the American system produces better average results than are obtained by any other method. It reaches a larger number of the deaf, produces a higher intelligence, and contributes more largely to their happiness. Now this last consideration, *the happiness of the deaf themselves*, calls for more attention than it is receiving. It is not partisanship of any system to say that in forbidding deaf children at school that free intercourse and social attrition of ideas which comes from the use of signs outside the class-room, we take from childhood half the joy of living. The mental development that follows such a free use of signs is wonderful and the reason of it is clear. To talk one must have something to talk about, and it is in supplying ideas that signs have their greatest value. The movements of the world are transferred to the playground, and such events as the nomination of Roosevelt and Parker are discussed in signs by little tots as by other children with all their senses.

Compare this freedom of communication with the condition of a deaf young man of twenty-two, recently reported by a hearing gentleman who has no direct interest in the dispute about systems of instruction. The deaf man "was carefully taught in a private pure oral school, and is remarkable for his distinct articulation, is a fair lip-reader of some persons, but there his acquisition from school ended. A year or so after leaving school he became subject to morose, depressed spells, and, later, to fits of demoniac rage until he had to be sent to special care. His father mentioned the case to me and remarked that his son seemed to pine for company. I was brash enough

to tell him that what the young man needed was free association with *somebody*, and that he could not associate with the hearing, as he was not a wonder at lip-reading, and that as he did not know signs or manual spelling there was nobody he could have sympathies with, and therefore the only chance for him was to manage to get him into the ——— school, just to learn signs and manual spelling and have somebody he could be social with. His father remarked that the teacher who taught the boy had represented to him that any knowledge of either of the above-named means of communication would utterly ruin his articulation (I don't remember what was said about lip-reading) and asked what I thought about that, to which I replied I didn't know and didn't care, and he agreed that he was getting to think he had been humbugged into sacrificing his son's happiness for a minor accomplishment."

The above hits the nail squarely on the head; the real happiness of a deaf-mute is too often sacrificed to a minor accomplishment. Were this an isolated case the incident might be passed over as exceptional, but it is rather a common occurrence; and when we see it preached, in effect, that those who cannot profit by one method are not fit to be educated with the deaf, we have a taste of the milk in the cocoanut even though it may not account for the hair on the outside of the shell. It is nothing new to those of us who mingle freely with the deaf, and who witness the anger of mature men and women in condemning the length of time devoted to speech alone. This is the most forcible answer to the assertion that the sole object of educating the deaf is to prepare them to associate with the hearing. The main warning of the "private" pure oral teacher to their pupils is to eschew the company of their fellows as liable to ruin their speech and as being vulgar. This strife for exclusiveness excites our pity for the "exclusives" and disgust for the teachers. Is it not time that this class of enemies of the deaf received the

closer attention of our associations? With the numerous excellent State schools, which offer special facilities and advantages and have the cream of the teaching profession, there is no crying need for the private oral school or the private oral teacher any more than there is for sending deaf pupils to the public schools.

I am very far from advising the deaf to flock together to the exclusion of association with the hearing; that would be a crime. But I recognize the fact that individuals, unless they be misanthropic or abnormal, seek the society of their kind. In the world at large people mingle freely when the requirements of business or citizenship make it necessary. Once at leisure they will seek people of their own social condition, their own churches, societies, clubs, and even nationalities. Is there, then, anything so very remarkable in the deaf occasionally seeking the company of their fellows after a working day in the company of the hearing? Is it not really a relaxation to talk freely in signs and the manual alphabet? Why deny them that happiness? We are told they ought to use speech when together. Very well; try it yourselves without the charm, the electric thrill, the music of the human voice.

Facts are facts, and if teachers gave more attention to the lives of the deaf beyond the school life they would discover that it matters not what may have been the system under which they were instructed, the graduates in the world seek each other's company for the mutual pleasure, the interchange of opinion, and perhaps to discuss the very teachers who are so anxious to keep them apart. It is human nature, and whoever cavils against it, be his position ever so exalted, he is among the worst enemies of the mental, moral, and social elevation of the deaf. I can say without fear of contradiction that the vast majority of the leading deaf of America, without regard to school or system, men and women who have the

welfare of their fellows sincerely at heart, and who judge from personal experience, unite in upholding the association of the deaf with the deaf within proper limits. To the "private" oral teacher we would say, Study this subject in the lives of the deaf outside the class-room before expressing an opinion, for there are teachers more competent than you to decide this matter, and they are on record in opposition to your opinion.

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THE MODEL SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

ONE of the most attractive exhibits in the great building devoted to education and social economy at the St. Louis Exposition, full as it is of interesting material, is the Model School for the Deaf under the direction of Mr. Alvin E. Pope, which is giving daily to hundreds of people from all parts of this country their first glimpse of methods of teaching the deaf, not only in the class-room, but in the trades schools too. It is impossible to tell how much help this exhibit may give to the cause of the education of the deaf; but from the interest shown by visitors, from the questions asked, and the desire expressed by many to know more of this wonderful work, there can be no doubt that the school is most helpful and successful, well worth the money and energy expended upon it.

To the ordinary visitor it may seem very simple to carry out such an exhibit, but to the teacher of the deaf it is clearer what difficulties have been overcome in securing money and equipment, in keeping accounts, in transporting and caring for a large number of children with their teachers and supervisors, in providing classes of

different grades, in arranging the exhibit so there may be no interruptions when pupils leave, and in attending to all the details of management subject to the accidents and changes unavoidable in the working of an enormous exposition.

Mr. Pope, who first proposed the plan of the Model School and has been at work on it for two years, the committee assisting him, the principals of schools from which the children come, and all the teachers and officials taking part are to be congratulated on the exhibition given by the school. It is without doubt the most successful exhibit in the Education Building, and one of the most attractive of the Exposition.

The States of Nebraska, Missouri, Ohio, Kansas, Illinois, and Utah have sent or will send classes to the Model School. In some cases the expense is borne by the State Commission, in some shared by the State Commission and the school itself, and in the case of Ohio it is paid from the funds of the State Institution alone.

The matron and household staff of the school are permanently employed. Supervisors as well as teachers come with the pupils, and often the school principal or superintendent also. Bed linen and towels, knives, forks, and spoons are brought with the pupils, but dishes, food, and beds are supplied at Dormitory No. 2 and Liggett Hall, two fine new dormitories belonging to Washington University, situated on high ground about a mile from the Education Building, but inside the Exposition limits. The necessary rooms in these dormitories were given up for the use of the model school by the president and four directors of the Exposition, who had been using them as their private retiring rooms.

The children are fed on abundant and wholesome food prepared in a kitchen in Dormitory No. 2, and served in an attractive manner in the same building morning and evening. For convenience, luncheon is served in the

Education Building. The superintendent of the school, the teachers, children, and all connected with it, have exactly the same fare. From personal experience I can say it is all that could be desired.

There have been almost no cases of sickness among the children. They are happy and contented, and are having the greatest treat of their lives, for Mr. Pope has been indefatigable in taking them about to places of interest and in arranging for their comfort and pleasure.

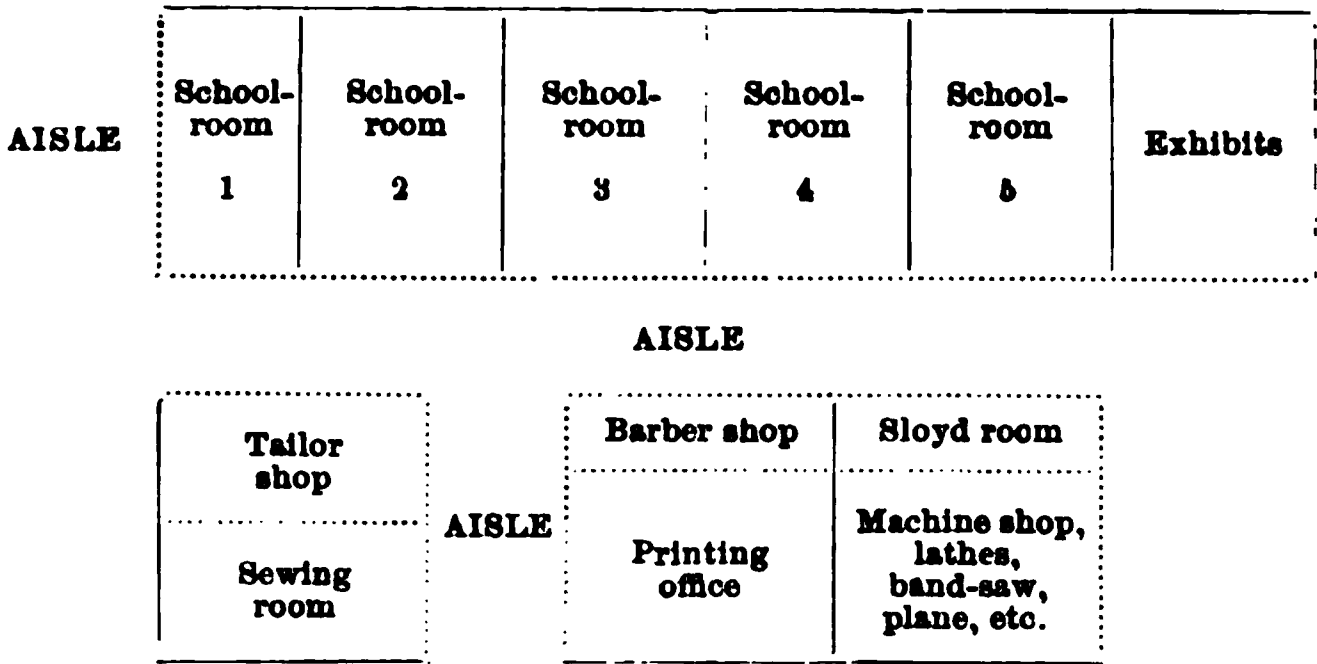
The kitchen range and utensils, the ice chests, and the tableware used for the pupils were furnished free as an exhibit by the manufacturers. The electric wiring and electric power necessary in the Model School were furnished free by the Exposition; the lathes, hand-saw, a \$2,500 printing press, school blackboards and desks, and the plumbing for toilet rooms, were all furnished without cost to the school by the manufacturers. To their generosity and to Mr. Pope's energy in securing their aid the small cost of carrying on the exhibit is largely due.

The Model School is situated on broad aisles where people constantly pass. The schoolrooms are on one side of a main aisle, with the shop rooms on the other side. The schoolrooms are divided from each other by high partitions covered with green burlap.

On the side toward the aisle they are open, with a railing in front to keep out the crowd. Each schoolroom has three long wall-slates, the teacher's desk, and excellent desks for the children.

Next to the schoolrooms is one booth devoted to displays of drawing, shop work, etc., from several schools for the deaf. Here are found exhibits from the institutions of Missouri, Kansas, New Jersey, Virginia, and Michigan, from the Columbia Institution, from the Boston School at Jamaica Plain, and from the Wright Oral School. The exhibits of Missouri and New Jersey are especially fine, the latter institution having a most interesting display of

millinery, photo-engraving, and stereotyping, besides that of more usual shop work.



On the other side of the main aisle are the trade schools. At the time of my visit, in the last part of June, a tailor-shop, sewing-room, and barber-shop were in operation, and a printing office, sloyd room, and wood-working shop were ready for use.

All school and shop work was from 11 A. M. to 12 M., and 1.45 to 3.45 P. M. The trade teaching was illustrated by pupils from the Missouri School. In the barber-shop, Mr. Maher, instructor, and one pupil, shaved anyone who offered himself, and, lacking candidates, shaved each other.

In the tailor shop, Mr. Merkle, with three boys, illustrated the work of the Missouri Institution in making uniforms for the boys, all of which work is regularly done in the school—cutting, fitting, sewing, and even the making of caps.

Miss Louisa Fliehmman, with two girls, gave an exhibition of embroidering and sewing, cutting and fitting, illustrating the regular work done by the girls, who make all the uniforms worn by the female pupils of the Missouri School, besides doing excellent work in other lines of sewing.

Room one on the school side of the aisle was not occupied when I visited the Exposition. It is very small, accommodating only three or four desks. In room two Miss Banford gave an exhibition of oral teaching with six pupils of the second grade from the Nebraska school, drilling them on the elements, with word lists, and with words, phrases, and sentences, such as the colors, *red, blue, white, green*; the days of the week; time phrases, *this morning, this afternoon, to-night, yesterday morning, etc.*; *I want some water, please; Please pass the bread; May I have some gravy?* "

The children read the teacher's lips and read speech from each other with great accuracy, making an excellent display for visitors to watch.

Miss Bright, with six pupils of the sixth grade from the Missouri School, occupied the third room, giving a fine exhibition of language work, arithmetic, geography, and history, as taught by the manual method.

All the work was absolutely new, being based almost entirely on the daily experiences of the children in their visits to places of interest in the Exposition. A visit to the Philippine Village, for instance, furnished questions on the discovery of the Philippine Islands, their distance from San Francisco, the name of their discoverer and of their present governor, the route necessary to follow in going to visit them, and so on.

In room four, Mrs. Saul taught six children of the first and second grades oral, also from the Missouri School. She drilled them in breathing, in the elements, with drill charts, and with simple sentences read from the lips. She also gave them written journal work, and in all ways provided a very interesting exhibition.

In the last schoolroom, Miss Mary Fliehmnn taught four more pupils of the Missouri School from the fourth grade of the manual department. Their work was also based largely on daily experiences in the Exposition,

given in journals. They also did excellent work in arithmetic.

The aisle in front of the school was thronged daily during the hours of instruction by crowds of visitors numbering from thirty to a hundred, nearly all of whom showed great interest in the work being done. Many asked questions, and some took notes and expressed a desire for more information concerning the education of the deaf. No other exhibit in the building attracted such crowds.

That great good has been and is being done by the Model School for the Deaf in rousing the interest of many people who have known nothing about such schools cannot be doubted, and all teachers of the deaf should rejoice that this exhibition of the work so dear to their hearts is being successfully carried on at the great Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

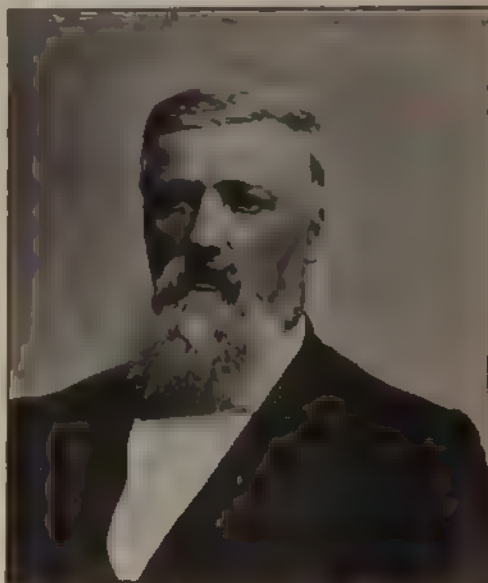
PERCIVAL HALL,
Professor in Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.

DR. JOHN JASTREMSKI.

DR. JOHN JASTREMSKI, for twenty-one years superintendent of the Louisiana School for the Deaf, died at the School July 5, 1904, after an illness which began a little over four years ago. At that time he suffered a stroke of paralysis superinduced by his great solicitation for the welfare of the children who were down with the measles, which was then epidemic in a virulent form, an epidemic never before having occurred during his superintendency. While the sick all recovered, his own health was never fully restored. But being a man of magnificent physique—strong, massive, and commanding in appearance—he was enabled to withstand the encroachments of the disease

sufficiently to carry on the work of the Institution until a few weeks before his death.

Dr. Jastremski was born in Haute Garonne, France, August 15, 1839. His father was Dr. Vincent Jastremski, a Polish exile of the Revolution of 1832, who moved to France, where he married. In 1843 the family settled in Louisiana. Dr. John Jastremski came to Baton Rouge in



DR. JOHN JASTREMSKI

1858, and engaged in the drug business. He followed this until 1883, when he secured the appointment of Superintendent of the Louisiana School for the Deaf. He had been from 1877 to 1883 a member of the Board of Trustees, hence he was continuously connected with the School officially for twenty-seven years.

At the time he became the superintendent there were only twenty pupils; the State was not able to give abundantly; the buildings had been temporarily taken away

from the deaf and used by the State University; but by dint of hard labor he completely renovated the buildings and succeeded in establishing a fine school with an enrollment of 130 pupils last session. None but those who were intimately acquainted with the difficulties under which he labored can realize the task he had in hand. Cheerfully and patiently he did his work, and his reward was the love and respect of all who knew him.

He enjoyed the confidence of successive administrations. Legislative committees never failed highly to commend his management of the Institution; at his death the House of Representatives, the Legislature being then in session, unanimously adopted a resolution to adjourn out of respect to his memory.

While Dr. Jastremski was not a leader and originator in the cause of the deaf, he never failed to adopt what had been tried elsewhere and found good. He was modest to a degree that caused some to underestimate his merits, but those who were intimately acquainted with him knew he had plans for the upbuilding of the School that would have made it second to none. His leading characteristics were gentleness, patience, generosity, and faith.

H. LORRAINE TRACY,
*Instructor in the Louisiana Institute,
Baton Rouge, Louisiana*

THE INSTRUCTION OF BACKWARD DEAF-MUTES.

To the Editor of the Annals.

SIR: An American friend informs me that my address delivered at Frankfort-on-the-Main has led to the opinion in America that I am an advocate of the American Combined System. Such an opinion can be entertained only

by one who did not himself hear my address, and who, because he does not know me, draws erroneous conclusions from what has been reported here or there concerning my address. By "the poorest of the poor," to whom not only would I permit, but for whom I would advocate, the use of the sign language—not of the manual alphabet—I did not at all mean those of the deaf who are capable of receiving a satisfactory education (the A, B, C pupils, as they are commonly called in Germany); I meant the mentally sub-normal deaf-mutes who stand far below these, and who, after a more or less prolonged trial in schools for the deaf, are finally sent to institutions for the feeble-minded, where, however, on account of their deafness, they do not properly belong. As my subject at Frankfort was not "methods," it was not necessary for me there to make this explanation in detail. The subject assigned me was "The Education of the Deaf for Human Society." The deaf who are capable of education belong after leaving school to the community of people who have all the senses, not to the world of silence. It is, therefore, not only unnecessary, but positively harmful, to make them acquainted with the sign language, as is done under the Combined System.

The intellectually inferior "poorest of the poor," however, find after leaving school no fitting place in the community of people who have all the senses. For them I should regard it as a great benefit if they could be gathered in a colony. In such a colony our spoken language would probably never be the ordinary means of communication. Therefore, I consider it unnecessary during the school period to carry them so far in spoken language as "to torment them with the learning of speech," as *must* be done in German schools for the deaf. There would then remain time enough to train them up to be cheerful and capable workers, as *can* be done in our schools for deaf children. But like any other human being the intel-

lectually inferior deaf-mute needs *spiritual* food. To him this cannot be given satisfactorily in after life through our spoken language. *What* language this shall be we must leave to the future, for our contemporaries will scarcely live to see intellectually inferior deaf-mutes satisfactorily provided for in school and in life.

OTTO DANGER.

Director of the East Friesland School. Emden, Germany.

THE CURE OF DEAFNESS.

To the Editor of the Annals.

SIR: In reference to deaf-mutes, I wish to acknowledge the mistakes of four years ago to which the *Annals* makes reference in a late issue.*

Those cases were among the first treated by me, and I was not then sufficiently careful in protecting against spurious answers arising from their eagerness to appear benefited. I have made this acknowledgment to the medical profession and offered as an offset a showing of others who are cured. Having shown some of these cases at a meeting of the Medical Association of Georgia at Savannah three years ago, and again here on April the 20th last, I feel that the burden of proof has been shifted to those who may still doubt.

Another phase of this subject to which I should perhaps call your attention is that there may be lapses. Cases that were made to hear will be deaf again, and some of these may go to the school for the deaf. In a haphazard patronage, such as I have had, it is not possible to hold all cases long enough to cure the disease, although hearing may be sufficiently established for the patient to hear and repeat spoken words. My experience is that all

* See the May number of the *Annals*, vol. xlix, page 296.

of these cases regain their hearing with further treatment, but all do not return.

There are some interesting aspects of deaf-mutism which I am reserving for discussion when the intelligent deaf come to realize that the pendulum of distrust has swung too far. My methods and results appear sufficiently grounded in scientific truth to abide the time which may be necessary.

MAURY M. STAPLER,
Macon, Georgia.

THE NINTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf will meet in the Palace of Education at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, October 17-20, 1904. Covering four days, regular sessions of the Conference will be held on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the Tuesday intervening being given over to participation in the special feature of the Conference week, the Helen Keller Day demonstration, arrangements for which have been made by and under the direction of the Exposition authorities and a special committee by them appointed. During the week Miss Keller, her teacher, Miss Anna M. Sullivan, and her mother, Mrs. Kate A. Keller, will be the specially invited guests of the Fair, and a general invitation has been extended by the authorities to all deaf-blind pupils to attend.

The Conference, taking on the nature of an International Congress of Heads of Schools for the Deaf, will be attended by foreign representatives who come to learn of us and from whom we in turn can learn much that will be of value to ourselves. Among them will be Madam Elizabeth Anrep Nordin, Principal of the first school abroad for the blind-deaf, the *Skolhemmet för Blinda Döfstumme*, Venersborg, Sweden, which was established by H. R. H. the Queen, and is supported by the government. This school, now numbering several

pupils, was opened in 1882 with one pupil in attendance and with Madam Nordin as the teacher. She now visits our country under the auspices of her government, and having been invited to attend and participate in our proceedings, will, no doubt, be pleased to present an interesting and instructive paper upon the subject of the care and instruction of the deaf-blind and concerning our work generally.

All questions pertaining to the intellectual, moral, religious, and industrial training of the deaf and the blind-deaf will be general subjects for discussion at the Conference, and especially to be mentioned are questions along practical lines relating to management, matters of legislation, salaries and wages, courses of study literary and industrial, higher education in our State Schools, our relation to the College, the advantages and disadvantages of day-schools and their supervision and relation to the State School, post-graduate courses, and many other subjects constantly brought to a Superintendent's attention.

It is hoped and believed that nearly all of the schools will be represented at this Conference, for at the time of its meeting the various school-terms will be well under way and everything in good running order, thus allowing the heads of schools to get away for a brief period; and it is urged that, wherever possible, they be accompanied by members of boards of management, State officials, friends, and others who are interested in the deaf, all of whom are eligible for honorary membership and speech; for a widened view of our work on their part and acquaintance with the membership of the profession will most certainly result in good for the cause.

The month of October is said to be the most pleasant one of the year in St. Louis, the weather at that time will be delightful for travel, the Exposition will be at its best, and an interesting programme will be given by the Model Schools for the Deaf during the time of meeting. Conditions will be perfect for both an instructive and pleasurable week, and it is hoped that every Superintendent and Principal will certainly be present. The sessions of the Conference will be held probably during the morning hours, thus allowing the afternoons and evenings to be devoted to the Fair. About October 1st,

a circular letter will probably be issued concerning the Conference, the International feature thereof, Helen Keller Day, headquarters, places for accommodation in hotels and private homes, etc., etc. In this connection, the undersigned would be pleased to receive at once some word from heads of schools and others interested as to the probability of their attendance or non-attendance at the Conference.

For the Executive Committee.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON,
Chairman.

INDIANAPOLIS, *August 24, 1904.*

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

MAJUMDAR, MOHINI MOHAN. *Muk-shikshâ.* [Education of the Deaf and Dumb.] Calcutta : 1904. 12mo., pp. 130.

Babu Mohini Mohan Majumdâr, an assistant teacher in the Calcutta Deaf and Dumb School, has written a copiously illustrated book on the education of the deaf and dumb, for which, at the particular request of the author, I have written an introduction. The book has been named "*Muk-shikshâ*"; *Muk* means *deaf and dumb* and *shikshâ* means *education*. It is written in Bengali—the language of Lower Bengal in India. As far as I am aware this is the first publication of its kind in any Indian dialect, and as the pioneer worker Babu Mohini Mohan Majumdâr deserves great credit.

In the preface the author expresses his obligation to the Earl of Rosebery and to Mr. W. Agnew of Scotland. Some time ago Mr. Agnew published a beautifully illustrated little book called "*Royalty and the Deaf and Dumb.*" Mr. Agnew very kindly offered to part with his blocks at cost price. But Babu Mohini Mohan was not in a position to pay even this, and an appeal was made to Lord Rosebery with the result that the noble Earl came forward with the generous help of £12 to enable him to secure the blocks.

The author's intention is as much to help the deaf and their teachers and guardians as to create an interest in the cause of deaf-mute education in India. The book has certainly been a

great success. It is written in such a flowing style that one feels almost charmed as he reads it. The novelty of the subject also adds a great deal to its charm. Indeed, a great scholar and educator of Calcutta, writing about the book, says : "The work in many of its portions is more fascinating than romance ; it is in fact a living romance."

The book is divided into three parts. The first part contains a short history of the education of the deaf. In the second part the author explains the different methods of instruction and gives a series of lessons for beginners which he could certainly enlarge with great advantage. Judicious explanatory hints are given in the foot-notes for the help and guidance of teachers. The third part contains illustrated sketches of the lives of some prominent deaf-mutes of the world. Short notes about two pupils and about the career of two former students of the Calcutta Deaf and Dumb School are given in this portion. The Appendix is devoted to the education of the deaf-blind. It is needless to say that Miss Helen Keller's history occupies the major portion of the Appendix. Half-tone engravings of the late Queen Victoria and of King Edward VII are introduced to show the kindly interest their Majesties have taken in the education of the deaf.

I have nothing but praise for the book ; yet I am bound to observe that a gallery of pictures of the benefactors of the deaf of the world is incomplete without the founder of deaf-mute instruction in America and the founder and President of Gallaudet College. The author has no doubt mentioned them in the historical portion of the work, but I hope it will be possible for him to add their portraits when he brings out the second edition of his book, which he has in contemplation.

JAMINI NATH BANERJI,

Principal of the Calcutta School, Calcutta, India.

BÉLANGER, ADOLPHE. *La Lecture sur les Levres mise à la portée des personnes devenues sourdes. Deuxième édition.* [Lip-Reading put within the reach of persons who have become deaf. Second edition.] Paris : Atelier Typographique de l'Institution Nationale des Sourds-Muets. 1904. 8vo., pp. 35.

The first edition of this valuable work, published in 1891, was exhausted several years ago. A review of it may be found in the *Annals*, vol. xxxvii, p. 295.

BELL, ALEXANDER MELVILLE, F. E. I. S., F. R. S. S. A., F. A. A. A. S., etc. *Popular Manual of Vocal Physiology and Visible Speech.* Third edition. Washington, D. C.: The Volta Bureau. 1904. Small 4to., pp. 59.

— *English Visible Speech and its Typography Elucidated.* Reprint from the *British and Colonial Printer and Stationer.* Washington, D. C.: The Volta Bureau. 1904. 8vo., pp. 9.

The “Manual of Vocal Physiology and Visible Speech” was noticed in the *Annals*, xxxv, 48, when the first edition was published in 1889. The text of the present edition is identical with that of the second edition, in which the few errors of the first were corrected. That a third edition should be called for indicates that the importance of the subject is receiving attention not only from professors of philology and teachers of the deaf but from students generally.

“English Visible Speech and its Typography Elucidated” is No. 39 of the Volta Bureau’s “Reprints of Useful Knowledge.” It consists chiefly of an extract from Mr. Benn Pitman’s “Life and Labors of Sir Isaac Pitman.” Mr. Pitman in this work refers as follows to the value of Professor Bell’s method of training the vocal organs, as exemplified in his own utterance:

“I retain a vivid remembrance of meeting Mr. Alex. Melville Bell before leaving England. I was much struck with the purity and charm of his speech. It was a revelation to me. His utterance seemed to combine the easy, graceful intonation of the talk of a cultured actress, with the strength and resonance that should characterize the speech of a man, and, though finely modulated, it was without a suggestion of affectation, either as to matter or manner. I had never before, and I do not know that I have since, heard English spoken with the ease and delicate precision that so distinctly marked the speech of Mr. Bell.

“Professor Bell’s clean-cut articulation, his flexibility of voice and finely modulated utterance of English, was but an exemplification of what efficient and long-continued training of the vocal organs will do for human speech—and how charming the result!”

MEUCCI, GUIDO. *Piccole Scene della Vita. Letture pei sordomuti e per le sordomute.* [Little Scenes in Life. Readings for Deaf-Mute Boys and Girls.] Vol. I. Siena: Tipografia Calasanziana. 1904. 12mo., pp. 102.

This is a collection of short stories by a teacher in the Pendola Institution, Siena, Italy. They are told in simple lan-

guage, each story being followed by questions. They are intended for pupils of about the same grades as are Miss Hammond's Story Readers, published by the American School at Hartford. Their value would be much increased if they were illustrated.

STEVENSON, MARGARET J. The Life of Jesus. Topeka, Kansas : Crane and Company, Printers. 1904. 16mo., pp. 38.

Miss Stevenson, a teacher in the Kansas School, tells the leading events in the Bible story of the Life of Jesus in language suited to very young children. The book comprises between thirty and forty brief chapters. The sentences are short, the words are few, the style is simple. Each chapter is illustrated by a half-tone reproduction of some famous picture well calculated to arouse the interest of the children and to fix the narrative in their minds.

REPORTS OF SCHOOLS (published in 1903): Maryland, Mississippi ; (published in 1904): Association for Oral Instruction (London, England), Bristol (England), Edinburgh (Scotland), Emden (Germany), Jews' Home (London, England), New York, Ohio, Vänersborg (Sweden).

SCHOOL ITEMS.

Alabama School.—Miss Minnie O. Bell has resigned to be married, Miss Elizabeth Rice to teach in the Missouri School, and Mr. Clyde Colbert to study in the University of Georgia. Miss Carrie Henderson, a graduate of the training class of 1904 at Northampton, and Mr. Harry Best, late of the Washington State School, have been appointed teachers. Miss Annie Johnson, who has been out for a year on leave of absence, returns to the work.

During the past summer the floor space in the Industrial Department has been more than doubled, and a new dormitory has been completed that will accommodate 200 boys.

American School.—Miss Hattie M. Bear and Miss Lura A. Beard have resigned to be married, and are succeeded by Miss Musa Marbut, M. A., and Miss Helen Fay, graduates of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College.

Arkansas Institute.—Miss Cordelia Andrews, Miss Laura Eakin, Miss Jennie Croom, and Miss Cleffie Hubble, of the Oral Department, and Miss Elizabeth Denison, of the Manual Department, have resigned. Miss Frances Lowery, formerly of the New York Institution for Improved Instruction, Miss Frances F. Ferguson, from the Iowa School, and Miss Rector, of Arkansas, have been appointed teachers in the Oral Department. Miss Clyde King, of Arkansas, who has completed a normal course in the Institute, and Miss Amanda Davis, of Arkansas, have been appointed teachers in the Manual Department.

Clarke School.—Miss Fletcher, her many friends in the profession will be glad to know, is able to resume her work this year, and Miss Anna Jaquith, after a year's leave of absence, has returned to her position as gymnasium instructor.

Colorado School.—Miss Alma L. Chapin and Miss Olga M. Gebhart, of the Wright Oral School, take the places of Miss Jennie Lee, who returns to Kentucky, and Miss Flora L. Dula.

Florida School.—Miss Agnes Steinke has resigned to teach in the Iowa School. Miss Cora Jack, of the Nebraska School, and Miss Sadie Lillard, trained at the Pennsylvania Institution, have been appointed teachers.

Gallaudet College.—At the last commencement the following degrees were conferred in course: *Master of Arts*: Owen G. Carrell, Herbert C. Merrill, and Oliver J. Whildin, graduates of Gallaudet College, and Arthur C. Manning and Musa Marbut, Normal Fellows: *Bachelor of Arts*: Harley Daniel Drake, Arthur Laurence Roberts, Blanche Marie Hansen, Effie Jane Goslin, Duncan Angus Cameron, Ernest Jackson Hendricks, Winfield Elias Marshall, Louis Philip Schulte, and Ida Wiedenmeier; *Bachelor of Science*: Frederick James Neesam, John Charles Winemiller, and David Friedman: *Bachelor of Philosophy*: Ernest Samuel Mather and Paul Revere Wys. Miss Gertrude Bowden and Miss Helen Fay received normal certificates.

In commemoration of the fortieth anniversary of the College, the following honorary degrees were also conferred upon distinguished graduates: *Master of Arts*: Louis C. Tuck, of Minnesota, and Samuel G. Davidson, of Pennsylvania; *Doctor of Letters*: J. Burton Hotchkiss and Amos G. Draper, of Washington, D. C., Robert Patterson, of Ohio, Thomas F. Fox, of New York, and James L. Smith, of Minnesota; *Doctor of Science*: George T. Dougherty, of Illinois, and Gerald McCarthy, of North Carolina.

Special features of Presentation Day, this year, were an address by President Gallaudet, giving the history of the College; an address by President Gilman, of the Carnegie Institution, expressing high appreciation of President Gallaudet's life work; and an address by Mr. S. G. Davidson, presenting to the undergraduates in behalf of the alumni a handsomely bound set of the International Encyclopedia as a memorial of the late Professor Samuel Porter.

Georgia School.—Miss Bessie Freeman was retired by marriage April 11, 1904. Miss Sarah J. Posey, a deaf lady, who was educated in this School, and who had given it more than thirty years service as a teacher, died after a long illness, May 16, 1904. Miss Louise S. Robinson, whose home is in Portland, Maine, after four years' connection with the School, declined re-election, as she desired to secure work nearer home. The places of these teachers have been filled by the employment of Arthur C. Manning, M. A., a Normal Fellow of Gallaudet College, Miss Nellie E. Adams, of Fulton, Missouri, and Miss Josephine Warren, of Stanford, Kentucky.

A commodious two-story building has been erected, the lower portion of which will be used for kitchen and dining-room purposes, and the second story as the Girls' Industrial Department.

Iowa School.—Mr. Frank O. Huffman, Mr. James T. Geddes, Miss Myrtle M. Long, Miss Irene Baker, Miss Gertrude Brown, Miss Frances F. Ferguson, and Miss Pearl Cole have resigned; Mr. Huffman and Miss Ferguson to teach in the Tennessee School, Mr. Geddes to teach in the Western Pennsylvania Institution, Miss Long and Miss Baker to teach in the Pennsylvania Institution, and Miss Brown to take a normal course in

the Clarke School. The following appointments have been made: Mr. Ezra S. Henne, of the Utah School, teacher in the academic grades; Miss Caroline R. Smith, of the Pennsylvania Institution, head teacher of the Oral Department; Miss Mary M. Whitney, of the Pennsylvania Institution, Miss Agnes Steinke, of the Florida School, Miss Henrietta E. Allen, of the Mystic School, Miss Alice M. Alcorn and Miss Nancy B. Reed, of Kentucky, teachers in the Oral Department.

Kentucky School.—Miss Jennie Lee has resumed her duties in the Oral Department after a year's leave of absence in Colorado. Miss Lucile Cooper, who was her substitute, has accepted a position in the North Carolina School at Morganton. Miss Mary Breckinridge, for many years a teacher in the Oral Department, has resigned on account of ill health. The vacancy is filled by the appointment of Miss Annie Doneghy, of Danville, Kentucky, who received her training at Mt. Airy.

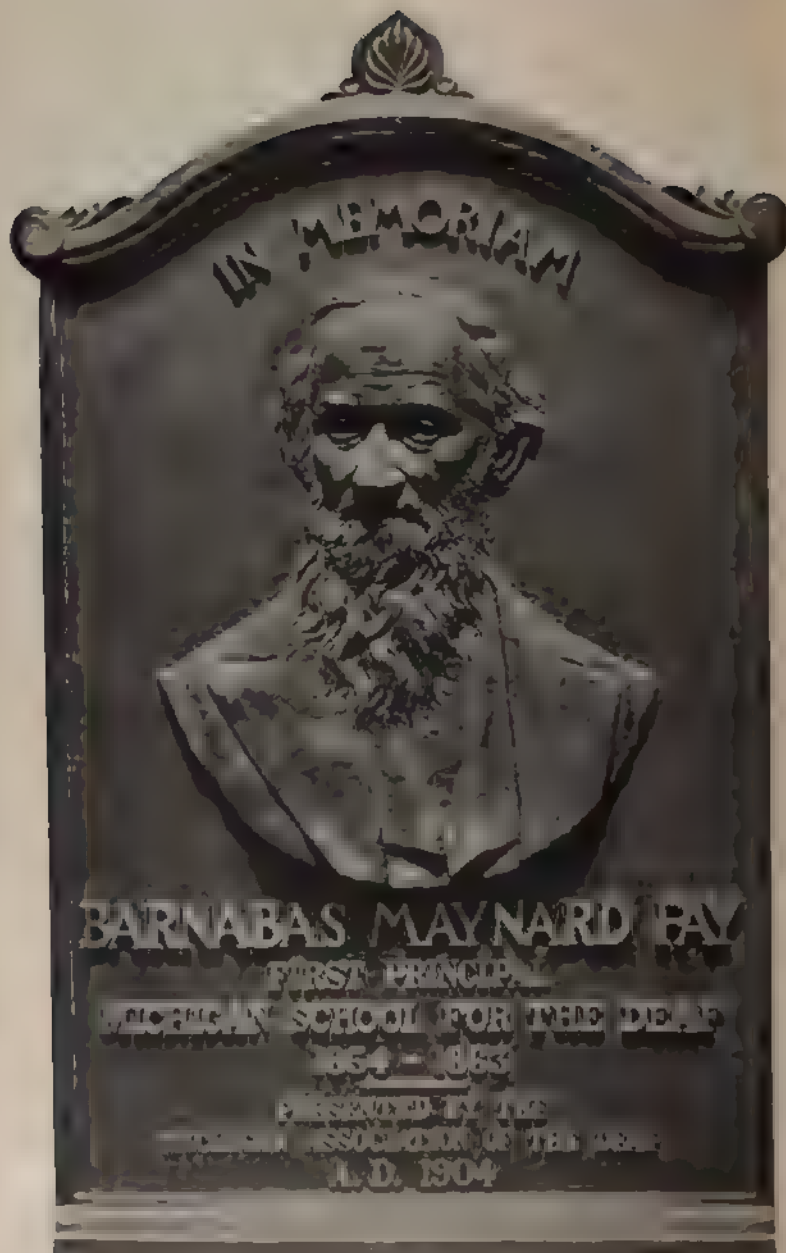
Louisiana Institute.—Mr. S. Tefft Walker has been elected Superintendent in place of Dr. Jastremski, deceased. Mr. Walker has had long experience as a teacher in the Illinois, Pennsylvania, and American Schools, and as Superintendent of the Colorado, Kansas, and Illinois Schools. We are glad to welcome him back to active service in the profession. Miss Julia Ripley, of Baton Rouge, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Maryland School.—Miss H. Ruth Griswold has resigned to teach in the Pennsylvania Institution, and is succeeded by Miss Rosa R. Harris, formerly of this School and more recently of the Tennessee School.

At the quadrennial reunion of the graduates and former pupils held at the School June 15–17, 1903, a memorial bust of the late William R. Barry was presented to the School by the Maryland Association of the Deaf. Addresses were made by Mr. George W. Veditz, of Colorado, a graduate and former teacher, Mr. A. C. Buxton, President of the Association, and Captain H. C. Naill, Secretary of the Board of Visitors. The bust is of bronze and is placed on a pedestal of Quincy granite in front of the buildings. It is the work of Mr. E. W. Keyser, of Baltimore. On the pedestal is the inscription:



THE BARRY MEMORIAL AT THE MARYLAND SCHOOL.



THE FAY MEMORIAL AT THE MICHIGAN SCHOOL.

WILLIAM R. BARRY,
BORN JUNE 28, 1828,
DIED AUGUST 12, 1900.
LIFELONG FRIEND OF THE DEAF.

The following law, making the education of the deaf compulsory, was passed by the last legislature :

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland that the following sections be, and they are hereby, added to Article 77 of the Code of Public General Laws, title "Public Education," under the subtitle "School Attendance," to follow Section 138, and to be numbered and designated as Sections 139, 140, and 141 :

139. That every child between 8 and 16 years of age, whose hearing is so defective that he or she cannot attend public school, shall attend some school for the deaf for eight months during the scholastic year, unless it can be shown that the child is elsewhere receiving regularly thorough instruction during the said period in the studies usually taught in the said public schools to children of the same age ; provided, that the superintendent or principal of any school for the deaf, or persons duly authorized by such superintendent or principal, may excuse cases of necessary absence among its enrolled pupils ; and provided, further, that the provisions of this section shall not apply to a child whose mental or physical condition is such as to render its instruction, as above described, inexpedient or impracticable. Every person having under his control a child between 8 and 16 years of age shall cause such child to attend school or receive instruction as required by this section.

140. Any person who has such a child under his control and who fails to comply with any of the provisions of the preceding section, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and be fined not exceeding five dollars for each offense.

141. Any person who induces or attempts to induce any deaf child to absent himself or herself unlawfully from school, or employs or harbors, while his or her school is in session, any such child absent unlawfully from such school shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and be fined not more than fifty dollars.

Approved April 7, 1904.

Michigan School.—At the Third Triennial Convention of the Michigan Association of the Deaf held at this School June 22-25, 1904, the Fiftieth Anniversary of the founding of the School was commemorated by the presentation of a bronze bas-relief of Barnabas Maynard Fay, the first Principal of the

School, and a reading-desk for the chapel in memory of John J. Buchanan, a beloved teacher who died in 1899. Addresses were made by Mr. Willis J. Hubbard, Mr. Thomas L. Brown, Mr. E. M. Bristol, Mr. F. D. Clarke, and others. The bas-relief is the work of Mr. Roy C. Carpenter, a young sculptor of high promise, who is a graduate of the School and of Galaudet College. It is placed in the main hall.

Mr. Marshall T. Gass, Superintendent from 1883 to 1892, died at Davenport, Iowa, May 6, 1904, aged sixty. He was a graduate of the University of Michigan and before becoming Superintendent of this School had taught in common schools. After leaving the Michigan School he was Superintendent of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Davenport, Iowa, until his death.

Minnesota School.—Miss Amy E. Snider has retired from the work on account of ill health, and Miss Bertha Park takes her place in the Oral Department. Miss Ernestine Jastremski and Miss Linda E. De Motte have accepted positions as teachers in the Illinois Institution, and are succeeded by Miss Marian King, of Jacksonville, Illinois, and Miss Nettie Christy from the Kansas School. Mrs. E. G. Renfro, of Little Rock, Arkansas, is added to the corps of teachers.

Mississippi Institution.—Miss Janette Moffat, a teacher for two years, has resigned.

It is hoped that work on the new buildings will begin in September.

Montana School.—Miss Martha Menefee, late of the Western Pennsylvania Institution, has been added to the corps of teachers.

Nebraska School.—Miss Cora Jack and Miss Jeannette Poole have resigned their positions as teachers and Miss Emma Sitton, of Fulton, Missouri, has been appointed.

A bakery has been added to the industrial equipment, and Mr. Henry B. Rogers, of Olathe, Kansas, is given the position of foreman of this department.

The Alumni held a reunion at the Institution September 21-23.

The School sent a third year oral class to the "Model School for the Deaf," at the World's Fair. It was under the

direction of Miss Lillian Bamford and remained through the month of June. In October Mr. Lloyd Blankenship will be sent with an Art Class composed of advanced pupils.

New Brunswick School.—Mr. William J. Stewart, formerly of the Western Pennsylvania Institution, has been appointed Principal.

New England Industrial School.—Miss Mary E. Smith, from the Pennsylvania Institution, has been appointed Principal in the place of Miss Swett, deceased. Miss Mary Bretz, of Pottsville, Pennsylvania, has been appointed a teacher.

New York Institution.—We mentioned in the March *Annals* the establishment of the “Ida Montgomery Testimonial.” The proceedings on the occasion of the nomination of the first candidate to receive this honor have been printed in full in a handsome large quarto of 32 pages by pupils of the Institution, accompanied by a fine portrait of Benjamin Robert Winthrop, the founder of the testimonial.

North Carolina (Morganton) School.—Miss Sibelle de F. King and Miss Frances K. Bell have resigned to teach in the Pennsylvania Institution, Miss Helen J. Flagg to return to Hartford, and Mrs. O. M. Hofsteater to rest a year. Miss Hermine Haupt, formerly of the Colorado School, Miss Jessie Ball, of the Detroit School, and Miss Lucile Cooper, of the Kentucky School, have been appointed teachers in the Oral Department. Mr. Robert C. Miller, B. L., a graduate of Gallaudet College, has been elected to the vacancy caused by the resignation of Mrs. Hofsteater. Miss Sallie Hart, teacher of cooking, and Miss Laura Baucom, teacher of sewing and dress-making, have resigned to be married. Miss Ida Bell has been appointed sewing teacher, and Miss Agnes E. Hunsicker, a graduate of Drexel Institute, teacher of cooking. Mrs. Laura A. Winston has been elected Lady Principal, and will act as supervising teacher of the manual, primary, and intermediate classes.

Mr. Goodwin has moved from the main building into the house recently built as a residence for the Superintendent.

North Dakota School.—Miss Mary L. Gordon, who was trained by Miss Mary Lyle, of Danville, Kentucky, has been

added to the corps of teachers. Mr. Asa Stutsman, for two years instructor in printing and boys' supervisor, has resigned. His place is taken by Frederick J. Neesam, B. S., a recent graduate of Gallaudet College.

Ohio Institution.—Miss Irene Boggs and Miss Anna Lincoln have resigned (Miss Boggs to be married), and are succeeded by Miss Gertrude Hatfield and Miss Anna Hoeffler, of last year's normal class.

Oregon School.—Mrs. Thos. P. Clarke has left the school-room to resume her duties as matron. Miss Florence Divine and Miss S. V. Michaels have resigned to be married. The three vacancies among the teachers have been filled by the appointment of Miss Ethel Hammond, a daughter of the Superintendent of the Kansas School, and Miss Mabel M. Morris and Miss Emma A. Dobbins, both of whom were trained at Mt. Airy. Mr. Alex. C. McDonald, a graduate of the Michigan School, has been employed as teacher of carpentering in place of Mr. John Mather, resigned.

A large septic tank has been attached to the sewer system of the school and much improvement is expected from it.

Pennsylvania Institution.—The Rev. Joseph Augustus Seiss, D. D., LL. D., since 1881 a director and since 1887 Vice-President of the board of directors, died June 20, 1904, aged eighty-one. Dr. Seiss, like most of the directors of this Institution, took an active personal interest in its affairs, and in order to be able more intelligently to discharge his duties he compiled from the *Annals* and institution reports statistics and other valuable information which he published in 1887 under the title of "The Children of Silence."

Miss Lina Hendershot, Miss Maria A. Rogers, Miss Elizabeth M. Watts, Miss Martha R. Stannard, Miss Kate S. Landis (since deceased), Miss Florence Carter, Miss Mary M. Whitney, Miss Una Upham, Miss Caroline R. Smith, and Miss Mary E. Smith have resigned their positions as teachers. The following have been appointed: Miss Myrtle M. Long from the Iowa School, Miss Cora E. Gruver from the Mystic School, Miss H. Ruth Griswold from the Maryland School, Miss Frances K. Bell and Miss Sibelle de F. King from the North Carolina School at Morganton, Miss Louise S. Robinson from

the Georgia School, Mr. Herbert H. Acheson from the Western Pennsylvania School, Miss Gertrude Bowden, a graduate of the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, Miss Margaret Sallee, of Kentucky, and Miss Ida La Rue, of Pennsylvania.

South Dakota School.—An articulation department has been opened with Miss Josephine H. Conn, of Tebbets, Missouri, in charge.

A cooking class and a class in practical sewing will be a new feature in next year's work.

During the past year a power laundry plant has been instituted. A convenient and commodious dormitory for the girls has been completed. It is the former hospital building with an additional story added.

Tennessee School.—Mr. Frank O. Huffman, late of the Iowa School, has been appointed a teacher in the Manual Department.

Texas School.—Mrs. Sarah Antoinette [Rogers] Brooks died at Cedar Spring, South Carolina, May 3, 1904, aged thirty-one. She was the daughter of deaf parents, and her sister, grandparents, uncles, and aunts were also deaf. Her own deafness was not total; she spoke well and was a remarkably good lip-reader. She was educated at the South Carolina School, the Kendall School, and Gallaudet College, and after her graduation, in 1899, taught first in the South Carolina School and later in the Texas School. She was married in 1902 to Mr. George A. Brooks of the Texas School, who is left with an infant daughter. She was of an amiable and affectionate disposition, graceful and attractive in her manners, a faithful and successful teacher.

Miss Charlie Taylor takes the place of Mrs. Brooks, and Miss Katheryne Johnson, who was trained at the Clarke Institution, the place of Miss Marion E. Fairbank, resigned. Miss Mamie Heflybower has charge of the deaf-blind in the place of Miss Bierne Barrett.

Mr. Blattner, Principal, with seven teachers of this School, passed five weeks last summer at Northampton, Massachusetts, taking a special course in oral work under teachers of the

Clarke School. They also had the benefit of two weeks' observation of this School before its term closed in June.

Texas School for Colored.—Mr. S. J. Jenkins, Superintendent of this School for the past seven years, died of apoplexy April 21, 1904. Mr. Jenkins was born on a ranch in Burleson county, Texas, and rose from the lowest surroundings through his own energy and ability. He was educated in the colored schools of his county and the colored State normal school, studied law, and entered upon the practice of his profession at Brenham. He became prominent in politics, and in recognition of his services to the Democratic party was appointed to the position which he held until his death. Though without special training for the work, he managed the affairs of the School ably and skilfully, and was justly regarded as a benefactor of his race.

Utah School.—Mr. Ezra S. Henne has resigned to teach in the Iowa School and Miss Wilhelmina Krause to be married. The vacancies thus caused have been filled by the appointment of Mr. James A. Weaver, of the New Brunswick School, and Miss Florence Bennett, of the Los Angeles School.

Miss Frances N. Eddy and Miss Lucille Driggs had charge of a third year class of five oral pupils from this School forming a part of the Model School at the St. Louis Exposition during part of the summer.

Virginia School.—Mr. T. J. Williams, the oldest teacher of the School in point of service, has retired by reason of advanced age. Miss Anne Butler Berkeley, a daughter of the late William M. Berkeley, and a recent graduate of the Virginia Female Institute, has been appointed teacher. Mr. J. M. Page, of Charlottesville, Virginia, succeeds Mr. S. C. Jones as head of the printing office, but Mr. Jones continues his work as teacher in the Academic Department.

Wisconsin School.—Mr. Eugene J. Bending, who had been director of the Manual Training Department since 1896, died April 25, 1904, aged fifty-seven. He left a widow and three children. He was an efficient teacher, with lofty ideals of work as well as character, and he raised the Department to a

MISCELLANEOUS.

Helen Keller's Graduation.—In June, 1904, Helen Keller completed the course of study which, under circumstances of unparalleled difficulty, she has pursued during the past four years at Radcliffe College, and was graduated with the well-earned degree of Bachelor of Arts.

The requirements for this degree at Harvard and Radcliffe, after the severe entrance examinations have been passed, are the successful achievement of $17\frac{1}{2}$ courses, each course consisting of three lectures or recitations a week for one college year. These courses offer a choice among a great variety of subjects, from some of which Miss Keller was debarred by her blindness and deafness, while for others—mathematics, for instance—she had little or no inclination. The courses she took were two in French, one in German, three in Latin, one in government, one in economics, one in the history of medieval Europe, one in the history of philosophy, two in English composition, two in Shakespeare, one in Elizabethan literature, one in the English Bible, one in English literature of the nineteenth century, and a half-course in Milton. She received special commendation as a writer of pure and strong English prose, her diploma bearing the words in Latin, “not only approved in the whole academic course, but excellent in English letters.”

Miss Keller received her degree with the distinction *cum laude*. There are two distinctions at Harvard and Radcliffe higher than this, *magna cum laude* and *summa cum laude*. As her friend, Mr. John Albert Macy, who edited the supplement to her autobiography, and was formerly an instructor in Harvard and Radcliffe, remarks in an article published in the *Youth's Companion* shortly before her graduation: “Fortunately for the self-respect of those who see and hear, Miss Keller does not stand at the head of her class. * * * But judged as we view normal students, her record is excellent; and viewed as the attainment of one who is deaf and blind, that record represents an achievement lofty and solitary among the deeds of men and women.”

The Exhibits of Schools for the Deaf at St. Louis.—Since the articles on the meeting of the Department of Special Education and on the Model School for the Deaf at St. Louis in the present number of the *Annals* were put in type, Professor Hall has sent us the following additional information concerning the exhibits of schools for the deaf at the St. Louis Exposition :

Lottie Sullivan, a deaf-blind pupil of the Colorado School, was present in August with her teacher, Mrs. G. W. Veditz. She attracted a great deal of attention, and did much to promote interest in the education of the deaf-blind. Emma Kubechec, a deaf-blind girl from the Illinois School, was to come later.

Besides the exhibits of drawing, school work, shop work, etc., from various schools mentioned in the articles above-named, there are also exhibits from the Arkansas, Colorado, and Pennsylvania Institutions, and from several of the Wisconsin Day-Schools. The Volta Bureau sent copies of its publications and some statistics compiled expressly for this Exposition from its last International Report; the *Annals*, a complete set of its bound volumes. A few of the schools of Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, and Japan exhibit photographs, reports, and school work.

Mrs. Monro's Summer Course.—During the month of July Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro, of the Horace Mann School, gave a course of lessons on the mechanism of speech, etc., in Boston. The course was attended by teachers of the deaf from Iowa, Louisiana, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia, and by a clergyman from New Hampshire.

ADVERTISEMENT.

A lady with several years' experience as a teacher in public schools, and five years' experience in a school for the deaf, desires a position as a primary manual teacher. Good references. Address Miss CORA B. SATTERLEE, Mondamin, Iowa.

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THE GREAT NEED OF THE PROFESSION.

THE fundamental principle which underlies the mighty sweep of progress from primitive savagery to the intricate complexity of modern social organization is the division of labor. Social evolution proceeds continuously by bringing about the more fitting selection, preparation, and placing of each individual in a manner most conducive to the general good of society, industrially, educationally, in science, and in art. It required centuries to distinguish the doctor (or medicine-man) from the preacher, and centuries more to distinguish the teacher, or educator, from the preacher. To-day we can scarcely realize that of the American Association of Universities but one, a Catholic institution, has a clergyman at its head.*

Even within the last twenty-five years vast and rapid changes have taken place in our educational system. Augmenting, transforming, or supplanting the old grammar school, college, and classic university, we find hundreds of great special schools of law, medicine, agriculture, of mining and engineering, of manual training,

* See an article by President Harper, of the University of Chicago, in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1902, vol. i, page 664.

normal training, and scientific study, and schools of war, commerce, politics, forestry, and journalism. Each of these schools in turn is organized into distinct departments under the direction of trained specialists.

Our modern extensive system for the education of the deaf is an earlier outcome of this same great movement toward securing the increased effectiveness and helpfulness of the individual by the greater concentration of his energies and interests upon a restricted field of effort. As a branch of general education, potent and far-reaching in its results, both direct and indirect, we have strong reason to believe our work has possibilities as yet undreamed of. Within a few decades it has accomplished marvelous results, as the higher education of Helen Keller and of thousands less afflicted and less conspicuous bears witness, not to mention the rescue of tens of thousands from the pall of a blighting ignorance, the poverty of a helpless dependence.

But, like other professions, we are not exempt from barnacles neither helping, understanding, nor caring for that to which they cling for life, nor from educational quacks thinking only of the maximum cash return for a minimum of special preparation, study, and effort. Others, earnest and conscientious, drift in and on, the unconscious victims of an ignorance fatal to success. Still others more numerous would lightly enter the work as a mere stepping-stone to pleasanter pastures.

To check the inroads of all such, to secure better average teaching results, to promote study, research, and improvement of methods, professional pride within and public respect from without, the greatest need of the profession to-day is a higher standard of general preparation and special training to be required of those who annually fill up its depleted ranks. Earnest efforts are making and much real progress has been made in this direction in recent years, but much remains to be done in the line
organized effort.

Before taking up the consideration of practicable ways and means, it is proper to consider somewhat exhaustively the general attitude in the recent past and at present in the matter of qualifications required, and what under more favorable conditions might properly be expected in the way of special preparation for teaching the deaf.

During the period of most strenuous contest between the respective advocates of oral and manual methods, the value of a knowledge of signs was so vigorously and constantly emphasized on the one side that the importance of other qualifications seemed to be often overlooked entirely or very unduly minimized. Young persons, both deaf and hearing, were appointed to important positions, and in the main left to hit or miss in making teachers of themselves at the expense of the classes taught.

A like condition prevailed when the demand for oral teachers rather suddenly became widespread and pronounced. Persons having a few months "oral training," and very slight qualifications otherwise, readily secured appointment. They were not of course to blame for taking advantage of circumstances, but that they should in many instances have failed to reflect any credit on the oral method is certainly not to be wondered at. Without any special knowledge of the subject-matter to be taught, utterly unacquainted with the study of mental processes or the general principles of pedagogy, the great facts of the history of education and particularly that of the deaf, how should such teachers (oral or manual) know without long, trying, and costly experience how to adapt and adjust their teaching to the peculiarly conditioned minds placed in their care?

Long years ago Horace Mann thundered with unanswerable logic upon the necessity of specially trained teachers as a fundamental requisite of the free public

school system, teachers of proven capacity, who have had opportunity to gain some little insight into the great problems of their work, its possibilities of improvement, its nobility, and the mighty influences upon future history of which they should hold the keys. To-day our land is dotted with normal schools devoted to the training of teachers. We must certainly admit that there will never be any royal and easy road discovered for the education of the deaf. We have fundamentally a set of peculiar psychological and educational problems upon the solution of which we are still divided and very much at sea, but upon which the average person unacquainted with the deaf is certain to form many erroneous and even absurd ideas. If special training or at least an elementary knowledge of pedagogy, educational history, and the general principles of psychology should be required of public school teachers, how much more should these be required of teachers of the deaf, who have the far more difficult task of developing minds deprived of the normal means of receiving and conveying knowledge!

The qualifications of teachers of the deaf which call for special training may be considered under four general heads:

- (a) Critical knowledge of the subject-matter to be taught.
- (b) Knowledge of possible means of communication.
- (c) Knowledge of the subject minds to be taught.
- (d) Knowledge of the various "methods," "devices," and "systems" employed.

As language is the all-important subjective instrument for the development of mind, and the deaf child is deprived of the natural means of acquiring it, the teacher must accomplish by art what nature fails to do, both in providing a fitting means of communication and in simultaneously securing the general development of all the mental faculties. To this end he should first of all be a thorough and criti-

cal student of language. Of course, an accurate appreciation of essentials and a sound knowledge of the best modern methods of teaching other subjects, such as arithmetic, geography, and history, should not be neglected, but comprehension of the principles of language development is of supreme importance.

The superficial reading and writing knowledge of English which the average high-school graduate has is surely not a sufficient preparation for the difficult tasks that so often puzzle those who have taught for years ; and surely it is a wrong system that allows such teachers, in the event of their ultimate mastery of the knowledge necessary to successful work, to learn so extensively at the expense of the pupils taught. In hearing schools the graduate can with approximate correctness of principles teach as he was taught, and inevitably is inclined to do so at first. But when he starts to teach in a school for the deaf his recollections of methods, if followed, are extremely misleading and disastrous, because of the totally different conditions under which he works.

The graduate of a school for the deaf has an advantage in this respect, but one easily and often overrated. Little observation is needed to show that a child during the most important stages of instruction is incapable of grasping the guiding pedagogic principles which govern the teacher's assignment and presentation of lessons. Certain outward forms make a deep impression on the child mind, others of the greatest importance make but slight appeal to his childish sense of values. How, then, can his later recollections of these impressions be a sufficient guide to him for the successful instruction of others ?

In view of these facts it is evident that, besides the ability to write correct English, there should be required of the would-be teacher of the deaf an exhaustive study of the grammatical principles governing the development of language, not from the rhetorician's but from the teacher's

point of view, seeking to discover what is most difficult, what is essential and what is non-essential to the child in acquiring language, and also the relationship between the acquisition of language and the concurrent development of mental power.

Because of the widespread and sensible protests against the teaching of technical grammar as a science to pupils of the primary and intermediate grades of the public schools, and even in schools for the deaf, there has been a tendency to belittle the value of the study. But when we consider that the foundation of the whole system of education for the deaf, and of all of its most successful methods and devices, is a thorough comprehension of the psychology of language development, there can be little excuse for a teacher of the deaf to plead ignorance and dislike of grammar, and take refuge behind the minor disputes of grammarians regarding definitions and classification.

The qualifications under the second general heading relate to a knowledge of the mechanical means of communication, such as the manual alphabet, signs, and oral methods. These have usually been emphasized as of the greatest importance, and justly so, for while mastery of them by no means insures fitness and efficiency in a teacher, an imperfect preparation in this respect puts a constant and deadening check upon that quick illumination of fact and sympathetic interplay of thought between teacher and pupil which is the first requisite of successful teaching.

Setting aside the disputed questions as to whether an accurate knowledge of signs is a necessary, desirable, or undesirable qualification, probably nine-tenths of the profession, in the United States at least, would agree that ability to read and use the manual alphabet with ease and some little rapidity should be required. Probably also both opponents and supporters of the oral method

would agree that only a very high standard of qualifications of oral teachers as regards their knowledge of vocal physiology, sound formation, and the peculiar difficulties of voice culture and corresponding helpful devices, can insure that general practical success the very possibility of which, under prevailing conditions, is still denied by a large proportion of people both within and without the profession, and by the graduates of all schools for the deaf. It seems clear that not only a few months of "observation work" and theoretical study, but several months of practice teaching, under close, competent, and constant supervision, should be required of the would-be oral teacher. Practice teaching is considered one of the most essential requirements of modern normal school preparation. How much more is it needed by any one undertaking to create speech in the speechless, to "restore the deaf to society," and secure the same ultimate educational results expected of the public school teacher!

Passing to a consideration of qualifications under the third general heading, we have to inquire what should be expected or required in the matter of a knowledge of the subject-mind to be developed, that is, comprehension of the generally accepted laws of mental development, the peculiar mental effects of deafness, the relations existing between language acquirement and mental growth, and the many questions arising as to relative educational and disciplinary "values."

On this point I cannot do better than quote from the report of the eminent Committee of Fifteen directed by the National Educational Association to report on the "Training of Teachers" with special reference to those in "elementary schools."

"Teachers are 'born and not made' has been so fully the world's thought until the present century that a study of subjects without any study of principles or methods of teaching has been deemed quite sufficient. Modern edu-

cational thought, and modern practice in all sections where excellent schools are found, confirm the belief that there is a profound philosophy on which educational methods are based, and that careful study of this philosophy and its application under expert guidance are essential to making fit the man born to teach. * * * Most fundamental and important of the professional studies which ought to be pursued by one intending to teach is psychology. * * * Power of introspection should be gained, guidance in observation should be given, and confirmation of psychological principles should be sought on every hand. * * * The habit of thinking analytically and psychologically should be formed by every teacher."

When we consider that in educating the deaf we have peculiarly abnormal psychological conditions to deal with, and as far as possible to overcome as to their injurious effects, it appears that a general knowledge of psychology is of exceptional value as a guide in our daily observation and study of the deaf child's mind and in the empirical adaptation and application of new methods and devices. Of course a knowledge of psychology is not in itself any guarantee of teaching efficiency any more than a knowledge of military history is a sufficient evidence of fitness to command an army. But as the study of military history helps to make clear the principles of war, so the study of mental processes illuminates the application of educational principles without a perception of which teaching soon degenerates into a mere mechanical routine, like the hireling laying of brick and stone without a conception of architectural beauty, or the chiseling of marble without a thought of the sculptor's dream.

Last but not least of the required qualifications of the intending teacher of the deaf should be a critical study of the various "methods," "devices," and "systems" employed in the education of the deaf, and so exhaustively

discussed in the literature of the profession. Under this head should be included a careful consideration of the merits and limitations of the five-slate system of language teaching, the possibilities of the correlation of studies, the most practical means of inculcating the reading habit, the best methods of developing and presenting the basic concepts of number, geography, and history, and finally the proper construction and use of a general course of study.

Passing now to the consideration of the practical ways and means of securing improvement along the lines above indicated, we find the problem by no means easy to solve. There are at present some 1,200 teachers of the deaf (not including industrial instructors) in North America, and more than 13,000 pupils, but dispersed over a vast area. In a few schools, it is true, provision is made for training teachers;* in the Normal Department of Gallaudet College, in the Training Class of the Clarke School, and perhaps in some other schools, the requirements for admission are rigid, the course of instruction is thorough, and the certificate or diploma of graduation is universally recognized as of high value; but the very limited number of normal students these schools are able to receive and train falls far short of meeting the needs of the whole country. The State, private, and day schools cannot individually afford to provide the kind of thorough normal training which is generally recognized as necessary to the accomplishment of high-grade average results. It is true that in some of the larger schools partially trained teachers can count upon the constant oversight, expert criticism, and helpful advice of a principal or department head, but the majority of our schools are not organized to provide such help to a sufficient extent. Usually executive and business cares render it impossible for a superintendent to act in the capacity of a normal instructor, however com-

* See Mr. Edward P. Clarke's article on "The Training of Teachers of the Deaf" in the *Annals*, vol. xlv, pp. 345-367.

petent he may be. Also where the teacher in training has no distinct status as such, friction and misunderstanding are likely to result from criticism which is intended and should be received in a cordial and friendly spirit with an eye single to the accomplishment of better results.

If the opportunities for teachers to obtain a complete and thorough training were not so limited, there would undoubtedly be a much stronger disposition among superintendents to insist upon a high standard of preparatory training on the part of appointees. But under present conditions not all who desire such preparation as will command the respect and confidence of the profession generally can get it. Where very long journeys are necessary, the mere travelling expenses are a considerable item of expense in addition to board and tuition; and only a very limited number of persons can attend the existing training schools where thoroughness and fitness are placed above all other considerations.

The cause is eminently one that might justly and logically claim liberal assistance from the national government, nor is it one that would require any very great outlay of money to accomplish extremely beneficent results.

The thought naturally occurs of the possibility of a strong, independent, centrally located normal school, admitting all worthy applicants, commanding the very best teaching talent in the profession and also the services as lecturers of men eminent in the general field of education, with a two years' training course optional, ample facilities for observation and practice teaching, low cost for attendance, and of such standing as to command readily the loyal and united support of the profession at large,—a school that would also be a laboratory, an educational experiment station, whose influence would penetrate, permeate, and improve all our educational thinking.

But probably other generations must arise before such a plan can be realized. Under the most favorable condi-

tions the patronage of such a school must be extremely limited ; and in the face of the present divisions of the profession on disputed questions, the differences of opinion that would arise over the proper location, organization, and conduct of such an institution, not to mention financial and other difficulties, the obstacles to its successful establishment would appear insuperable.

Still tentative efforts in this direction might be undertaken at an early day that would be of immediate practical good and might lead ultimately to the realization of some such possibility.

To this end let us suppose a National Bureau for the examination and certification of teachers of the deaf should be organized under the direction and control of the American Convention of Instructors of the Deaf. At its meeting next summer the matter could be fully discussed, and a committee be appointed to perfect the details of such an organization, draw up a course of study, and arrange for examinations, and for the issuance of certificates to those who by examination or otherwise should prove themselves thoroughly prepared to undertake the work of teaching the deaf.

If the standard of requirements was of a high order, probably the number of applicants would not be very numerous for some years at least, being limited by the limited opportunities to secure the proper training. Persons of good character and health holding such certificates would have little difficulty in securing positions, and this would tend constantly to increase the number of worthy applicants. Superintendents besieged by local applicants for positions could very properly require all such to secure a certificate from the National Bureau before promising consideration of their applications ; also superintendents of schools remote from the great educational centers would have much better opportunities than at present of judging as to the degree of professional preparation of applicants

if these held certificates representing a definite known standard of attainment. Teachers and principals in various parts of the country desiring to give normal instruction would naturally be disposed to conform their course of study and requirements to that having the official sanction and support of the American Convention of Instructors, and would endeavor to prepare their pupils to meet all the requirements for certification by the National Bureau; they would also be inclined to refuse to accept as pupils persons who would inevitably fail in such effort.

The most important officer of the Bureau would be the secretary and treasurer, who would provide applicants with the course of study and the rules and regulations governing examinations, and with blanks calling for complete information in concise form regarding previous education, age, health, experience, location and length of time of positions held, etc. He would, of course, keep a record of all certificates issued, file examination papers and application blanks properly filled in, and promptly place such official information as he had on file at the service of any superintendent desiring the same. To cover the expenses of printing and postage, and in part recompense the secretary for the time and attention essential on his part for the success of the Bureau, it would be necessary to charge successful applicants a fee not to exceed twenty-five dollars—perhaps considerably less. Or possibly other means could be found for meeting these expenses, wholly or in part, such as federal aid, or a small *per capita* appropriation from the State institutions, or perhaps endowment by private benevolence.

Upon the committee having charge of the Bureau would devolve the duty of determining the course of special study and the standard of general educational attainments to be required, also the specific requirements as to age, health, amount of practice teaching, or experience under certain conditions, etc. They would have to arrange the times

and places for holding examinations and for the grading of papers. As the number of persons to be examined in any one year would not be very large, probably a committee of persons eminent in the profession could be found who would consent to pass upon the papers and certify those worthy of approval.

Without a very high standard of requirements, commanding the respect and confidence of the majority of superintendents, and their loyal support through the preferred appointment of applicants holding certificates, of course the Bureau would be a failure. But with the adoption of such a standard great impetus would be given to the tendency toward progressively higher and more uniform professional requirements, the general and prompt adoption of the best known methods and devices, and a consequent steady improvement in final results. It would be quite possible to raise the standard of required qualifications whenever in the judgment of the committee in charge the number and fitness of the applicants, and the more abundant opportunities to secure proper training, should justify such a change. Or the change for the better might with better results be made very gradually from year to year.

In the professions of law, medicine, dentistry, in the civil service, and in the service of many great corporations, some system of special examinations to determine the special fitness of persons for the work they desire to do has been found absolutely necessary to secure the best average results for the public. But especially in all our State public schools has this been found indispensable to uniformity and steadiness of improvement in educational work.

The numbers of deaf pupils and their teachers in any one State are of course too small to justify any attempt in this direction in the several States; and only interminable confusion, defeating all hoped-for excellence of re-

sults, could follow an attempt of the many State institutions to set up separate standards of their own. But as applied to more than 1,200 teachers teaching more than 13,000 pupils, the value of a generally recognized and established standard of professional requirements of a high order would be inestimable. What has proved so productive of good in broader fields of similar work would surely prove so in ours; and in this age of marvellous organization, revolutionizing every department of human endeavor and exerting influences that daily encircle the globe, the obstacles toward a closer, more practical and efficient organization of our own profession cannot be insuperable. Even from efforts at first abortive may come the suggestion and ultimate success of an effective plan for the improvement of present conditions so universally desired.

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LANGUAGE WORK WITH HISTORY—PRIMARY AND INTERMEDIATE.

IN history so attractive a field of narrative is laid out before the teacher that he is apt to lean always toward the teaching of pure history and spend little time upon the co-relation of history and language. For the deaf, history is an attractive study; its wealth of exciting stories, its biography, and its portrayal of life of both people and nations lend themselves to graphic signs in the most natural manner; history becomes a series of moving pictures and a recitation is seldom uninteresting to a pupil. History does not deal with the abstract as does language, and in being tangible to a pupil it appeals to his intellect and imagination; a wise teacher can handle a class of history pupils so as to give them a good knowledge of past

events and inculcate the principles of patriotism and good citizenship.

Books are not infallible guides; a judicious teacher sometimes prunes the text and often enlarges. With the deaf, history must be made to count for much. Only that which is essential should be taught and we should endeavor to foster in our pupils the ability to form opinions and draw conclusions from what they read upon the subjects of the different governments, people, and religions of earth. History covers a wide field and no study can be made more attractive nor of much more practical value to our deaf pupils.

In teaching history, it is best to curb the strong desire we all feel to confine our instruction entirely to the subject and discard the language work in connection; we should arrange recitations where the two can be united with equal benefit. I desire to give a few original exercises I used in my classes last year, which I found worth all the time and work I spent upon arranging them.

Several times during the term I gave original sentences containing mistakes in language and also as to historical facts, underscoring the mistakes I wished corrected, as: "Queen Isabella was Queen of *England* while Columbus discovered a new world." I usually gave ten sentences which I made on the typewriter, each group of sentences being different. I distributed the papers during the recitation and had the pupils correct all mistakes without assistance. I collected and graded the papers. Each pupil could be given the same sentences, as it entails much work upon the part of the teacher to make all different, but it was my preference to give each pupil individual work. My classes liked this exercise and it was a busy time until the last error was corrected.

At long intervals I had my pupils copy sentences leaving blanks to be filled to complete the historical fact, but this exercise was not original with me. I often had my

pupils write original questions in history during the study hour and bring the papers to me the next day. Sometimes I would ask for twenty-five original questions in history without answers; sometimes fifteen questions with answers; and then to vary I would ask for twenty-five original questions leaving space for answers. These papers I collected and exchanged, and in this way all answered the questions which had been asked by their classmates. I found this exercise an excellent one; some of the papers were encouraging and made me think my labor had borne some fruit.

I do not believe in dwelling upon many dates in history, but sometimes I gave ten or fifteen dates, as, "What occurred in 1803?" and required that complete sentences should be written on paper and handed in the next day. In a class of deaf pupils, the idea of time is sadly at variance with facts, and to straighten out their crooked notions was one of the greatest difficulties I encountered. I often asked questions such as, "Which happened first, the death of Columbus or the discovery of a new world?" or "Which was settled first, Rhode Island or Virginia?" I used similar examples judiciously and carefully all during the term, having first led up to this form by such questions as, "Which was born first, you or I?" Along this line I made haste slowly, as I saw it was one of the hills of difficulty to a teacher of history.

I believe strongly in illustrated lessons in teaching history. Everything I could utilize in this way I made blackboard drawings of, and after explaining the principal facts in connection, I had my class write from the drawing. These were always good papers. The drawing I made very large and put them on the board out of school hours so as to be ready for work when the class entered the room. In such a recitation history becomes language without sacrifice.

My most enthusiastic language work was in sente

building, and I gave it frequently as a little "recreation" recitation. I made on the typewriter original sentences in history covering the work the class had done. I made the sentences contain from fifteen to twenty words, and each sentence was different, as I made as many sentences as I had pupils in the class. I cut the sentences into parts, each part containing one word. These parts I put into envelopes and distributed them among the pupils, cautioning them to be careful of the tiny pieces and not lose one. It was not always easy work to put the sentences together correctly, but I never gave any assistance unless the pupil was hopelessly lost in his effort. As the pupils finished I had each one copy the sentence on the slate, put the pieces carefully in the envelope, and exchange with another pupil. In ten minutes some had finished two sentences while others were still on the first, but I never continued the exercise over fifteen minutes. I repeated the exercise with these sentences a few times and then made a new set of sentences. My pupils liked to put the pieces together, and I sometimes gave out a few when I was waiting for the slow pupils to finish.

Another language exercise I used with history was to give an historical fact or event in a short paragraph without correct arrangement of the words in the sentence. My classes did not like this work and it required persuasion upon my part for some to continue until it was correctly arranged. I thought it was an excellent drill in ascertaining their ability to express a fact in a certain number and arrangement of words. Of course, it hampers their expression to set words, but it teaches correct arrangement and as to what idea a group of words conveys to their minds. I always used it as a board exercise, but I think it could be used with advantage as a part of the work for the study hour. It should be used sparingly and with discretion, but it is not without practical value to a deaf child.

My classes did the usual composition work, but to make all work alike I generally asked for twenty-five or thirty sentences about a certain subject; as a few of my pupils could write a composition of surprising brevity, I generally curtailed the length of some and elongated the brevity of others.

My recitations were always written, corrected, graded, and returned to the pupils. Errors in language were marked and those of frequency were selected and their explanation and correction were used as a part of the recitation period.

History is full of enjoyment to both teacher and pupil, and the stirring events of the past ten years have made the study of living personal interest. To teach our pupils such salient points, such important facts of past history as to make the present conditions but a step in the world's progress, should be the aim of all teachers. A pupil so taught will always be a student of history, and he will be able to draw conclusions as to the future from his knowledge of the past, for human nature never changes and conditions are accurate indicators of results.

This can be done and still history and language be taught together. For one who does special work and teaches history alone his task can be put upon the basis of parent and child. While his heart is with the parent, his judgment will not let him neglect the child.

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SOMETHING MORE ABOUT EXPLAINING LESSONS AND HARD WORDS.

A TOPIC discussed at a recent meeting of the Teachers' Association of the Nebraska School was whether it was advisable to explain lessons before the child had studied them, and what was the best way to explain hard words. These are much mooted questions, and, no doubt, have caused many a conscientious teacher not only to give them considerable thought, but to submit them to the test of experience. That the conclusions usually drawn are against a too indiscriminate explaining of lessons, there can be little doubt.

This is not assuming it unwise to give any explanations whatever beforehand. There are times when a hint let fall here and there does much to clear away the hazy atmosphere which would otherwise envelop the attempt of the child to grasp the full content of a subject. But on such occasions, when it may be deemed expedient to give explanations beforehand, great care should be taken not to make them too long drawn out—so full as to leave nothing to be acquired by effort on the part of the child.

This matter of explaining lessons before they have been studied is one of vital importance, and, possibly, has not always been disposed of for the best interests of the child. No claim, however, to having discovered new ideas or methods for making easier the lessons of the pupil is advanced here. We teachers, it seems, are a little too much given to theorizing. A proneness to theorize is the fashion nowadays, and we are in danger of overdoing the matter entirely. Instead of "keeping everlastingly at it," we are ever experimenting, and this experimenting does not always result to the best advantage of the pupil. Slightly

to change the wording of a verse of Clough's, we seem content—

To finger idly some old Gordian knot,
Unskilled to sunder and too weak to cleave,
And with much toil attain to half success.

By this is intended no disparagement of methods, or of the honest endeavors of the teaching profession to hit upon some plan or device that will better facilitate the teaching of the child. These are all right when not overdone; they are essentially necessary. But too great reliance should not be placed upon methods. It has been well said that the matter of supreme importance which should occupy the attention of the teacher is to know the methods of the child, his temperament, his individuality, and to regulate his own methods accordingly. Especially is the necessity for this made all the more evident in a class of deaf pupils where there are always present mental capabilities and differences in greater and more varying degrees.

To return to the matter of explaining lessons. It should not be regarded as absolutely necessary to explain them beforehand; the practice is neither logical nor productive of the best results. If anything, it is demoralizing to a healthy mental growth, and has a weakening tendency upon the character. It is generally better to encourage the pupil to use his own intelligence to the utmost, even though he does not fully understand what he is trying to master. For an accepted principle is that the mere effort, on the part of the child, to grasp the meaning of a subject is of itself strengthening to the mental fibers. The case of the celebrated professor of mathematics who would draw most intricate geometrical figures upon the wall-slate and say to his class: "To-morrow tell me what these mean," would seem to point a moral for those of us who are over-fond of explaining lessons and, in so doing, draining all the real sense out of them. According to

our modern conception, however, the professor was carrying the matter of requiring mental effort a little too far. It was imposing too much, perhaps, upon youthful minds, and this is out of keeping with the teachings of psychology. Yet it is reasonable to suppose that the habit was not wholly devoid of good results, something that cannot be said of many of the methods to which we are hopelessly wedded. The specific end he had in view was nothing of the hazy kind ; it was clear-cut and well-defined. He aimed to supply abundant exercise for strengthening the mind ; to develop the observative and imaginative powers ; a most praiseworthy end, to be sure.

It has been maintained by those who favor explaining lessons beforehand that the child is likely to form wrong impressions if the matter is not explained, thus making the teacher's attempt to illustrate it the next day doubly hard, since not only will he have to explain it but also to correct the false ideas which the child has unwittingly acquired. This is the strongest claim that can be advanced for previously explaining lessons. A plausible theory, however, is that it is not altogether impossible to supplant an erroneous impression ; correct ideas can be fixed all the more strongly in the mind of the child by a mental comparison with the false ones which he is likely to form. Granting for the sake of argument that this is true, the whole matter is reduced to a single proposition, whether the harm wrought by a too indiscriminate habit of previously explaining lessons outweighs this particular strong point in favor of explaining them. It is not unreasonable to presume it does. Moreover, there is a saner way to avoid the possibility of the child getting the wrong conception of the lesson. For there is such a thing as making clear the ideas of a lesson without the child's suspecting it. For instance, suppose the child has a lesson in geography the contents of which he is not likely to apprehend. Instead of opening a text-book and launching

out upon a rambling explanation, would it not be more to the purpose for the teacher to select some similar object to talk about which has the advantage of being near at hand, so the child can investigate it for himself? Thus, suppose the lesson happens to be about the formation and composition of soil, or the work done by streams. It would be more reasonable if the teacher should give a live, interesting talk about the nature and composition of the soil, and of the work done by the streams of the neighboring country—the institution farm or school-garden, for instance. This would have the merit of being in keeping with the psychological principle of beginning with the child's experience and building upon that. In making such talks, the identical hard words and phrases used in the book should be so employed as to give the pupil some idea of their meaning. This does not imply a simplifying of the matter for easy comprehension. Strength of mind can be acquired only in mastering difficulties. And it should be borne in mind that the difficulties presented should not be greater than the child is capable of overcoming.

It may not be amiss to state here that the tendency to make all work play is in some danger of being overdone. There has never been, and there never will be, a royal road to learning. Thus spoke ancient wisdom and we moderns may profit by the precept. Aristotle contends that education ought not to be turned into a means of amusement, and there is considerable common sense in the reflections of this old philosopher. No criticism is intended here upon that teaching given in the primary and the first year or two of the intermediate department under the form of play, but upon the wholesale tendency to make all work play, as is advocated by some teachers. For that teaching which shuns all points requiring individual research and effort is in a measure worse than no teaching at all. One of the secrets of successful teaching is to inspire in

the child an insatiable desire to know—to understand. To accomplish this he must be taught that he must work. To have successfully aroused in the child such enthusiasm as this is to have accomplished half his education. But to return to the matter of an indirect explaining of lessons by means of talks on familiar things. It prevents the child from forming misleading ideas; at the same time it helps him to gain a clearer conception of the contents of a lesson, as is illustrated in the matter of explaining a geography lesson, treating of the formation of soil, by a talk on the nature and composition of the soil in the vicinity of the school. For it is reasonable to suppose that by doing this the child will understand better what is meant by gravel, clay, loam, and the like.

If we would only weigh carefully the wrong we do a child by trying to explain and simplify everything for him, we should not be so ready to do this, at least until some individual effort is expended in trying to master the lesson. The fault is a grave one indeed. It is not only an impediment to a healthy mental development and growth, but it has a weakening effect upon the character. With the sensitive pupil it creates the impression that you regard him as incapable of independently grasping the ideas of a lesson. The result, as is quite natural to expect, is to engender a spirit of diffidence. It robs the child of the most essential of all virtues—self-reliance. This is more baneful in effect, more difficult to correct, than wrong impressions he may acquire. With phlegmatically constituted children it has results quite the contrary but none the less harmful. It cultivates in them a careless, slipshod way of doing things. They soon perceive that it is unnecessary for them to go to the trouble of thinking, since the teacher does all the thinking needful. They are content to study by rote, and do very little of this even. Indeed, this prevailing disposition to simplify everything pays a large premium upon stupidity.

It has been claimed that if the child goes to the evening study room with the lessons all unexplained, he will devote more time to tormenting the teacher in charge for explanation of hard words than to studying. What if he does? Is not this just what the teacher is on duty for? But it is not at all necessary that such a lamentable state of affairs should exist during the evening study hour. Rather, does it not point to a cog being loose somewhere in our system of instruction? For if the child were taught how to use a dictionary rightly would there be any excuse for his bothering the teacher to explain the hard words?

To explain a lesson in advance is to send the child to the study hall with the ideas all mapped out. The hour, as is natural to expect under such circumstances, is spent in a kind of sham study, which is worse than no study at all. Concentration plays no part in the effort to master the lesson. What is still worse, the ideas, which were all explained, and not acquired by individual effort, make no lasting impression upon the retentive faculties; they soon fade away, leaving the mind as blank as it was before. There has been no real effort, no true study, hence no strengthening of those faculties which make for material progress.

It is claimed that the child often gives as a reason for not knowing his lesson that he was unable to understand it. This is a somewhat worn excuse. Any child when called to account for not knowing a lesson will offer as an excuse that he was unable to understand it. Especially is this true with the deaf child, who is usually quick to perceive that his teacher regards his poor command of language as a stumbling-block in the way of his getting at the contents of the lesson. Pay no attention to this excuse; no thorough teacher will accept it.

What has been said should not be misconstrued as an advocacy of keeping only the difficult side of a lesson before the child's mind; for this is to cause him fear and

dread. It is as liable to create in him a spirit of diffidence as does the knowledge on his part that you regard him as lacking in the power to understand the meaning of ordinary language. The great object of study is to cultivate in the pupil the power to see clearly, to imagine freely, and to act effectually. This is something that can never be acquired without individual effort on the part of the pupil as well as skill and guidance on the part of the teacher.

An admirable plan for teaching a subject—geography, for instance—so that not only will the words be understood and the language made clear, but the ideas be more firmly fixed in the mind, is never to explain the lesson before the child has tried to master it unaided. Taking into consideration the fact that the test of understanding is the ability on the part of the child to express the ideas of the lesson in his own language, it would be well to require him to write them out the next morning in his own language, and insist that the ideas be as near correct as possible. For a time, at least, there will be more or less copying of the language of the book. But this should serve only to indicate just what part of the lesson is not understood by the child. It is advisable that the teacher study the same lesson out of school himself, and thus be prepared to write out the contents of the lesson in simpler language. Not all technical terms should be discarded, since the power to interpret these terms must be developed, and the sooner it is successfully done the better. The teacher's writing should be upon the wall-slate, since it can then be read by the entire class at the same time. The slates of the pupils should then be corrected, and they be required to read one another's slates. After a time the teacher can confine himself to merely glancing over the pupils' slates, leaving the correction of mistakes in language to be done by the pupil. A spirit of healthy rivalry is thus created ; enthusiasm reigns supreme ; the

monotony, so noticeable when the teacher is laboriously trying to explain the lesson, is a thing unknown. The advantage claimed for this plan is that by means of it the ideas of the lesson are conveyed to the mind of the child through several different mediums—his teacher’s, his classmates’, his own, and the author’s. This is an excellent language work, and the constant repetition of the contents of the lesson fixes it all the more firmly in mind. After this, it is well to go into as thorough an explanation as time will permit. It is also well to illustrate the lesson with whatever material or apparatus the teacher may have on hand.

In reviewing a geography lesson—and the frequent review of a lesson is of the utmost importance—the use of what is known as the tabular form is helpful. Suppose the class is reviewing a certain section of our country—the New England States, for instance. Now, as a means of enabling him to give in a clear, concise way all he may know about a section, this form has evident advantages :

THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

State.	Capital.	Largest cities.	For what noted.	Largest rivers.	Mountains.	Seaports.	Climate.	Occupations.	Products.

In connection with this form another excellent language work may be had. The class may be required to

write out in full the facts grouped under the separate headings. If the teacher do this thoroughly, insisting that the pupil use all technical terms with which he may be conversant, there will soon be no necessity of explaining lessons. All this requires something out of the ordinary routine work for the teacher, to be sure. Yet if the end justifies the time and patience, he must needs be a miserly teacher who would begrudge it.

Now for a few remarks about explaining hard words. What has been said about explaining lessons beforehand applies in a measure to explaining hard words. The best thing to do in this matter is to give the child a dictionary and teach him to use it rightly. The dictionary must be his aid through life ; it is imperative that he learn to use it intelligently. This is not advocating the indiscriminate placing of a dictionary in the hands of the younger pupils, but it is advisable to do so with the intermediate and advanced pupils. We often wonder at the inability of our pupils to use or to select in the dictionary the right word that will convey to the mind the precise thought the author intended ; yet is it not irrational to expect of them what they have not been taught to do ? Our English language abounds in such an unexampled variety of words, many of which possess kindred meanings, that it is little short of absurdity to expect such an impossible "feat" as the selecting of the right word to express the right shade of meaning when pupils have never been taught how to use a dictionary. Small wonder that when these words are "marshalled in array" to express thought the deaf child is hopelessly bewildered and unable to grasp the author's meaning. He knows nothing, has been taught nothing, about the varying shades of meanings that words possess. To him they are simply black dots on white paper.

An intelligent comprehension of words is necessary for both the understanding and writing of English. Does it

not follow, then, that more time and thought should be given to the matter of teaching our pupils rightly to comprehend the meaning of words? If they are always to be dependent upon others for selecting or understanding words, we have accomplished little toward equipping them for an active and useful life. Is there not some way by means of which we may better teach them to better use and understand words? Undoubtedly there is.

The following plan is one that has had the test of experience. It may properly be called "word analysis." A tabular form, like the one given below, is drawn on the large slate. The pupil is required to look up a desired word in the dictionary, analyze it, and give its meaning. To illustrate more clearly the idea, let us take and analyze the word "beautiful":

Word.	Analysis.	Meaning.
Beautiful.	beaut $\left(\begin{smallmatrix} i \\ y \end{smallmatrix} \right) + \text{ful.}$	full of beauty.

This not only enables the pupils to see how words are built, but also how they are derived; it enables them better to comprehend the meaning. Before they have acquired a certain degree of familiarity with the plan it is best for the teacher to explain the words before they go to the study hall. But after some knowledge and ability has been acquired the class should be required to bring in the hard words of each lesson the next morning all analyzed and the different meanings given; the idea or meaning the author intended the word to convey should be denoted by an asterisk. The class should then be made to copy the diagram and words into note-books kept for the purpose, and afterwards to refer to them time and again.

This plan can be so arranged as to include the synonyms and antonyms of words. This will make the work somewhat more difficult, and it should be used, perhaps, only with the advanced grades. That the plan may be made productive of good results there can be no doubt. A more correct idea of just what is meant here may be had by again resorting to an illustration :

Word.	Analysis.	Meanings.	Synonyms.	Antonyms.
Imprudence	<div>Im + pruden(t) + ce.</div> <div>Im = not, prudent = wise,</div> <div>ce = form of an abstract noun.</div>	<div>(a) Want of prudence, indiscretion ;</div> <div>(b) want of caution ;</div> <div>(c) inconsiderateness ;</div> <div>(d) rashness ;</div> <div>disregard of consequences.</div>	<div>impertinence, incivility, boldness, effrontery, forwardness, assurance, carelessness, officiousness, pertness, presumption, rudeness, sauciness, intrusiveness.</div>	<div>bashfulness, coyness, humility, lowliness, meekness, modesty, submissiveness.</div>

The advantage of such a plan as this is, first, instead of the one meaning the child will probably obtain from the teacher, he acquires several ; secondly, his vocabulary is enlarged and enriched ; and, thirdly, he is not so hampered in writing by a meagre choice of words. Moreover, he is enabled to read more intelligently, and accordingly derives greater real pleasure and happiness from life.

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THE CULT OF THE STOCK-BREEDER.

WHEN we consider the various schemes for the improvement of the breed in man which have been put forth from time to time by scientists and sociologists, there comes to us in our special field the question how the deaf would fare in the event of any general legislative enactment intended to restrict marriage to those who are supposed to be mentally and physically "fit." Most men who have attempted to deal, either theoretically or practically, with this problem have soon found that they have thrown their plummet into waters reaching far beyond their estimation of the depths thereof. The wealthy Russian landowner who is at this moment experimenting on his own account with the peasants on his estate is trying no new thing. Plutarch tells us that in ancient Greece a selection of the finest physical specimens of the day was made, segregated, and supported by the labors of the helotry with the view of establishing a race of physically perfect human beings. The experiment failed because the "scientifically bred" people became so idle and so stupid that they were unable to follow any continuous train of thought and were gradually displaced by persons of superior mental powers. It is highly probable that with the life of the Russian autocrat we have mentioned his experiment will be brought to a termination.

At the same time no student of sociology can but feel that if more were done to encourage marriages of healthy persons, more assistance given towards the proper care, nutrition, and training of healthy children, and more stringent regulations in respect of the marriages of unhealthy or defective persons put into operation, it would be better for humanity as a whole. No sane person can dispute the correctness of the sentiment, or the wisdom of the legislative enactment, which would ope-

rate, with due respect to the liberty of the individual, towards such an end. It is when we come to consider ways and means that the magnitude of the task appalls, and we understand how it is that all efforts in this direction have been merely tentative, experimental, and so limited in area as to be merely drops in the ocean of political economy.

Reviewing ancient times we see that Lycurgus and Aristotle would have it on the statute book that nothing imperfect or maimed should be brought up; and the cries of children sacrificed to idols found their echoes on the wilds of Mount Taygetus. Plato in the groves of Academe held the art of healing in contempt. A life protracted by medical skill he held to be a long death, and men with bad constitutions were better out of existence. Yet Greece, so far from carrying out what Grote called its "grand purpose of maintaining a vigorous breed of citizens," sank in course of time into licentiousness and moral anarchy, and passed a diseased and weakly body politic beneath the Roman yoke. Rome in its turn declined and fell, its moral atmosphere as miasmatic as the air which brooded over its desolate Campagna.

In ancient Britain Druidic altars were stained with the blood of weaklings. Saxon, Dane, and Norman ground the faces of the poor in body or estate. Ruffianism held away. Plantagenet and Tudor saw the beginnings of social enlightenment. As knowledge, with the invention of the printing press, grew from more to more, and the words of Jesus of Nazareth worked like leaven in the hearts of men, the amelioration of the lot of the poor and the unfortunate became a matter of concern. To and fro, across the warp of self-regarding human life was woven that other regarding principle which we may call Altruism. The sympathy which lies at the base of all lasting social relations, together with those deeper moral and religious feelings which enrich and elevate human nature, came

more and more into prominence. The welfare of the individual, it was seen, was the welfare of the State. Schools, almshouses, and hospitals were founded. A new era began.

We would not go back to the old days. But there are those who think with Döhrn and others that various symptoms of degeneration may and do occur as concomitants of social progress. We are told that in aiding the weak, sustaining the diseased, and allowing them to marry, we are encouraging the production of more weaklings, neuropaths, and even criminals. Statistics have been compiled and published in support or refutation of various prognostications of danger. Investigations are being made; the schoolmaster is abroad; doctors, scientists, and others are running to and fro, and knowledge is being increased. If we recognize the desirability of sequestering the morally unfit, as shown by our provision of asylums for the insane, reformatories for the vicious, and prisons for the criminal, why, we are asked, do we not recognize the fact that some measure of protection against the continual increase in the number of the physically unfit is desirable and just?

It is due to these earnest investigators to treat their statistics with respect, however severely we may test in the crucible of criticism the corollaries which they deduce from their observations. Statistics make the order of nature ascertainable, and fairly compiled they cannot be gainsaid or traversed.

Now, the inevitable result of any close study of statistics on this subject is a feeling that the position of those who are pleading for more careful regulation of the birth supply of future citizens is impregnable. It is when we come to consider ways and means of regulating this supply that we are confronted with our greatest difficulties.

If we take, for instance, the suggestion that the State shall act the part of a careful stock-breeder, select the

couples who shall be parents of the next generation, and put its veto on marriages of the "unfit," we are met at once by the questions: "What are we to breed for?" "Who are the unfit?"

The stock-breeder has a very simple ideal to which he directs the entire pairing of his stock. "He breeds for beef, he breeds for calves and milk, he breeds for a homogeneous docile herd, * * * which is just what our theoretical breeders of humanity cannot venture to do. They do not want a homogeneous race in the future at all. They want a rich interplay of free, strong, and varied personalities, and that alters the nature of the problem absolutely." *

Then how is the dividing line between the fit and the unfit to be drawn? What degree of deafness, for instance, would be held to render a person "unfit"? A stringent medical examination would probably condemn quite half our population as defective in one respect or another, and of the remainder a considerable number might be morally unfit to have the care and upbringing of children.

Mention has been made of experiments of this kind, and an interesting commentary thereon is furnished by Mr. F. Legge, a writer in the *Academy*. "If," says he, "we imagine a ruler desperately determined upon improving the breed of his subjects at all risks, and as autocratic as, say, Rajah Brooke of Sarawak, he must first * * * assemble his subjects and pick out from those of marriageable age all of either sex who were up to a certain standard of height, strength, fineness of skin, keenness of sight, and the other physical qualities that he is anxious to perpetuate. He must compel these to marry, carefully choosing his pairs so as to compensate as far as possible for the excess of any particular quality by a corresponding deficiency in the other, and must, when these unions are prolific, go through a similar course of selection with the

* H. G. Wells, "Mankind in the Making," p. 41.

children. But if he stopped here he would be rather farther off instead of nearer to his object than if he had left matters to nature. Nature brings about the survival of the fittest more by the elimination of the unfit than by conscious selection, and it would be necessary * * * that all those subjects who did not come up to the ruler's standard of fitness should either be knocked on the head or prevented by perpetual imprisonment from propagating their species; * * * but as, to give the experiment any chance of succeeding, those condemned must form at least one-half of the population, this last alternative would resolve itself into the fitter half sustaining by their labors and at the same time keeping in ward the more unfit—a state of things which would make life more intolerable for the jailors than for the prisoners. The unscrupulous ruler would, therefore, be driven to the first alternative of summary execution. But by the murder of one-half of his subjects, his fighting strength would be so terribly reduced that his territory would prove an irresistible bait to his neighbors, and in the fight which would follow some neuropath like Clive or Napoleon, or some hunchback like Richard III or Marshal Vendôme, would probably seize the reins of power, and the experiment be at an end. * * * Taking all facts together it seems that any serious attempt to improve the breed of man by artificial selection would be met by nature with the elimination of the improved race.”

Even if we hold that a set of individuals, if well fed, well taught, well exercised, and employed in noble work, could be developed into a perfect breed of men, we have only to glance at the reigning royal families of Europe to be again disappointed. “The conditions which should make such a race,” says the *Spectator*, “are the conditions under which these princely houses have been reared. They have all had the best lodging and the best food procurable at the time; they have all been trained either as

soldiers or sportsmen; they have all had the means of acquiring knowledge, and they have all had inspiring work to do. Yet they remain very like other people. * * * Very few Princes have been original men, and the descendants of these few have, we think, without an exception, slipped back to the ordinary level. It would be easy to draw up a list of greater personages who have been brought up in poverty or amid rather squalid surroundings. That does not prove that poverty and squalor are good conditions to breed great men among; but it does prove that what are considered good conditions will not of themselves produce them. You cannot, that is, breed a truly Royal caste." Furthermore, if we consider the statistics of Esquirol, which show that the proportion of insane to sane persons among these carefully sheltered royal families is, or was, when compared to the same ratio among the common people, as sixty to one, the cult of the stock-breeder is driven to its last ditch. Finally, the idea that artificial selection and interbreeding of individuals above the average will raise the average of any species will be seen to be untenable.

Anyway, it may be persisted, we should actively endeavor to assist nature in her task of eliminating the unfit.

Ought we, then, to give the last dram to the drunkard, his latest folly to the fool, and hand the poison bottle to the wretch who calls for it? Shall we leave the wounded to die, the starving to perish, the weak to their weakness? Shall we abolish doctors who of all men have done most to keep the unfit alive? And shall we declare the profession and practice of medicine to be a hindrance to the development of the race?

Were we to model our conduct on Nature's apparent conduct, as Nietzsche would have taught, we should come to this. But Nietzsche's teaching, stripped of its fine phrases, means simply a return to the primitive instincts of our far-off arboreal ancestors—"immoral, crude, inflated, incoherent stuff," Tolstoi has called it.

sleeping very soundly in some cases, and then, after it is once awakened, the work ought to be presented so that this memory will delight to *stay* awake and broaden and grow strong. When we for a moment stop to consider how the little ones' eyes are occupied all day long with the effort to read lips and other exacting work, it seems as if the same work should be presented in a great variety of ways, thus resting the eyes and the mind. Hearing children need this change and variety, but how much more the children who are afflicted with deafness, and must needs "hear with their eyes."

I shall speak in this paper of devices for the study of words, but let my readers remember that all statements apply equally well to elements of speech. A teacher may have one general method of presenting words to her class, but it makes a pleasant variety if the words are brought before the children in some pretty, fresh, unique way. For instance, the word may be made to look quite beautiful if painted upon a card with water colors. A teacher who professes to have no artistic ability may really paint in this way very nicely. Make the lower part of the letters of the word of one color, and shade the tops of them with another one. A great variety of combinations of color may be obtained in this way. It is always well that a child see a harmonious combination of color. Dotted and striped effects in letters always please children. Make the words large and the letters fairly broad.

Words written upon different shaped cardboards are pleasing. The cards may be cut into geometrical forms, the forms of animals, etc. Different colored cardboards, or variously tinted papers, may also be used.

Pretty scrap pictures may be had at reasonable prices. Words may be written upon the back of a single scrap picture. A set of children, babies, flowers, etc., is attractive, or pictures may be procured which depict a little landscape. The child should be asked to give the

names of all the animals or objects which he can in the picture. This exercise makes a little variation from the chart or any large language picture which is used regularly in the schoolroom.

Oftentimes, while looking over the games in the toy departments of some of our large stores, hoping to find something which I could adapt to the work of my little deaf class, I have found simple little picture card games which I have arranged and used to great advantage. Sometimes a printed word, figure, or letter is found upon such a game, but a piece of paper may be pasted over this object and the word desired written instead upon the paper, or, if the picture is without any of these, the word may be written or printed upon the back of the card. It is surprising how many really attractive card games may be brought into the schoolroom with profit to the children.

Perhaps you know some good-natured dry goods merchant. Ask him if he has any sample cases of ribbon. Paste strips of paper in the middle of each of these samples (after taking them from the case) and write a desired word upon it. Transfer pictures may be placed upon little cards, and the words written upon their backs, not *below* the picture, for the child might imagine it to be the *name* of the object. The children will not be confused in this matter; they readily see and understand that it is only a picture to look at *in certain cases*. A set of paper dolls may be used to write words upon. The children see that it is a set of *dolls*, but that the *words* are all different.

If one is able to procure a large illustrated catalogue, the pictures, especially if colored, will delight the little ones.

Words may be written in the middle of a colored, fancy-shaped piece of tissue paper, a corresponding piece being carefully pasted to the edges of the first piece, thus making a transparency. Children love the mysterious, or

a little surprise, so the fact that they do not know what word is hidden away until the paper is held to the light, attracts and interests them immediately. The class may be so placed that it will not be necessary for any of the children to go to the window or leave their seats in order to see the word revealed by the light. Cut-out pictures in silhouette may be used in the same way. These will easily be recognized by the children.

Pictures or words may be hidden about the room, and as soon as one is found by a child he will immediately come to the teacher and tell what he has found, returning for "more worlds to conquer." Of course the child who finds the greatest number of objects is filled with joy! Or the teacher may say, "Find the boy," or "Find a cat." Thus lip-reading, observation, and speech are all included in this little game.

Pictures, objects, or words written in very large text on cards, may be placed about the room *in sight*, and the teacher may say: "Where is the girl?" or simply speak the word, "Girl," "Dog," etc., if the little ones have not attained to the dignity of reading a sentence from her lips. Or perhaps it will add variety if the children, rather than the teacher, take turns in repeating the word to the class.

A large chart may be very easily constructed with many words written upon it in circular form. A hand, resembling a clock hand, may be cut from a piece of very stiff cardboard or piece of tin, one end of which is fastened in the middle of the card, and in the center of the circular group of words. When called upon the child may move the hand to the word which is named by teacher or pupil.

Take a board one-half by three-quarters of a yard in size, screw hooks in it about two inches apart in every direction, and write different words, both new and old to the children, but only *one* word under a hook. Let the

board stand upon a chair or in the chalk trough of the blackboard, and let the children stand at a little distance from it and throw rings upon the hooks. Whenever a ring is captured by a hook, the child speaks the word below that certain hook, writes the word upon the blackboard, and points to the picture of it upon the picture chart which should be at hand. The rubber rings which are used on the tops of fruit jars, or rings made of cardboard, may be used in this game. A board or very thick piece of cardboard may have words written upon it, as in the above-mentioned game, and the written words may be shot at from a tiny bow, with an arrow constructed for the purpose, or, instead of the arrow, a dart may be thrown at the words.

A small panorama is the delight of little children. This may be made of a wooden box with a roller of wood (perhaps small rolling pins would do). On these a roll of paper could be wound or unwound easily by the teacher, a little handle being attached. In the open face of the box, which of course should face the children, words or pictures may appear. The panorama, after a few revolutions, will show a new picture to the children, and of course they are to give the names of all objects in the picture, either in chorus or separately in turn. The teacher will have different rolls of pictures or words, which she may change when the children become too familiar with either.

I have some devices which are better to be given while the children are sitting about the table. The common little checker boards (not the backgammon boards) may be had for five cents apiece. Write words upon the squares, and as the teacher speaks the word the children may in turn point to and repeat it, or place a checker upon it as the word is named. Little pictures of objects may be pasted (if preferred) upon the squares, instead of the words. If the class is too large to work comfortably

with the checker board when placed in the center of the table, two may be used, one at each end of the table.

We are all familiar with the game called "Fish Pond." Why not fish for words? I procured a large-sized game of this kind, pasted papers over the figures which are always found upon the cardboard fishes, wrote words or elements upon them, and let the children fish. As soon as a fish was caught the word upon it was spoken two or three times. In any of these games which I have mentioned, or may mention, there seems to be an added interest when the teacher keeps account of the points made by the different pupils.

Boxes of children's blocks may be had for five or ten cents a box. There is a flat kind of block which has upon it letters on two sides. These may be covered with paper, the size of the block, and different words may be written upon both sides. Procure two boxes of blocks and after the words have been placed upon them, scatter them about the table. This device is designed for a test in quick lip-reading. The teacher speaks the word quickly and then each child strives to be the first to find that particular word upon the block. Great rapidity is needed by the children to turn the block about and discover the word.

A large pile of words written upon little squares of cardboard may be placed in the middle of the table, and as the teacher holds up a picture before the class each child tries to be first in finding the title of the picture in the pile of words upon the table. The same word is written more than once and mixed in the pile of letters. This exercise may be given as "busy work," each child being provided with a good number of pictures and words, the word which is represented by the picture being placed thereon. Or the child may be provided with separate printed letters, and print the name of the picture by placing the letters forming the word upon it.

An alphabet with ink pad might be used as a great treat on a rainy or dark day—the children doing their own printing of words. These alphabets and ink pad sets, however, are a little expensive.

For another game words may be written upon tinted or white cardboard; cards are then cut through the middle, shuffled, and distributed, face down, to the children. Each child in order turns up a piece of cardboard and places it in the middle of the table. When a child turns up a card which matches any other on the table, he places it before him and speaks the word.

I shall be very glad if any of these devices may prove of help to any teacher of the beloved little deaf children of our country.

KATHARINE F. REED,
Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

THE SCHOOL MUSEUM.

THE following is a copy of a circular sent out by a superintendent of one of the southern schools for the deaf. It was intended to reach every teacher of the deaf in the United States.

“To the Teachers of the Deaf:

“The Legislature of our State makes an annual appropriation for a museum for this Institution. What I mean by a museum is not a collection of curios, but a collection of objects that are useful in the teaching of the deaf, such as cotton bolls, ears of corn, grains of wheat, blades of grass, leaves, brick-bats, lumps of coal, sticks, sand, clay, leather, various kinds of woods, minerals, etc., etc., *ad infinitum*.

Will you be kind enough to write out and hand to your superintendent the names of such things as occur to you, after some thought, that would help teachers of the deaf in this way? When I have received these replies I will have the entire list printed in alphabetical form and send

you a copy. There are many of the commonest objects that are not at the teacher's hand during school hours; we want all of these."

A more profitable theme for discussion could not have been chosen. The status of the school museum has become an important question, and we are now in all probability upon the eve of a museum movement which will prove comparable with the great increase in efficiency and in number of school libraries. But it is still so little understood and has attracted so little attention that almost no literature on the subject is available. This general lack is the more remarkable considering the acknowledged usefulness of museums.

In the light of to-day, when it is recognized that teaching is better done by object than by word, that the thing becomes better known by studying itself than by reading or memorizing a description of it, the museum is indispensable. No botanist would attempt to teach a pupil botany by the dry descriptions and definitions contained in a floral manual. He would send him to the field to consider the lily, knowing that a day spent there is worth more than a month of book study.

A good museum is an unsurpassed library and school of object teaching, making the pupil learn something whether he will or not; filling countless gaps in his knowledge, affording a perpetual fountain of riches to the teacher, and a mine of gold for the pupil. If this be true, it needs but to be spread, to be multiplied, to be known, whether on a humble scale or a grand one, in order to become one of the most powerful and most popular means of educating. This is particularly true in the case of schools for the deaf.

It has recently been my pleasant privilege to assist in the arrangement of a school museum which is considered one of the best of its kind in the country; consequently I feel that a description of its arrangement and management

will supply in some degree the information asked for in the circular.

1. *Scope.*

To speak of the scope of a museum is in one sense easy; but in another it requires no less than the prophet's ken, for the scope is almost unlimited. A museum should contain all natural history objects that will show any of the phenomena or illustrate any of the relationships of nature, and all materials of an industrial nature that will show the origin and stages of processes of manufacture. All gaps should be supplied with pictures; for instance, in the cotton series we cannot have the field, but we can have a good picture of it.

The late Dr. Goode in his well-known maxim says that "a museum should consist of a collection of instructive and well-written labels illustrated by carefully selected specimens." It is evident, however, that our schools have not yet awakened to an appreciation of the valuable educational influence that may accrue through the use of carefully selected and clearly labeled models of machinery, apparatus used in the arts and trades, and a display of products in various stages of manufacture. In a museum, display for the sake of display should have no part. Its mission is the illustrating of the truths of science in a vivid and positive way, and for this purpose the humblest object it contains may be as full of meaning as the most costly.

2. *Organization and Development.*

It need not be supposed that the establishment of a really good museum is possible only by a munificent endowment. Many of our neighborhoods are incipient museums from which a few industrious workers can easily secure collections. The bringing together of a complete series illustrating the minerals, flora, fauna, and history of almost any inhabited region ten miles square would be

found to furnish illustrations of a great number of facts of science. One would hardly suppose it possible that such a variety and number of organic and inorganic species could be found within so limited an area, had it not been demonstrated by collections now in existence. In many respects local material is the most valuable for educational purposes. Such complete collections of the natural objects found in a neighborhood properly classified, named, clearly labeled, and openly exhibited is a great auxiliary to the educational machinery of a school. The actual specimen of bird, flower, or insect must convey a clearer and more perfect conception than the most elaborate description in a book, for it is only by study of the real object that all its attributes appeal to the mind.

The collected materials in the beginning consist of more or less isolated specimens which soon begin to combine into related series; for instance, a piece of glaciated rock or beach pebble will illustrate the action of the different erosive agents and the appearance of the materials upon which they act. Similar collections are made illustrating some natural relation of plants, animals, or minerals. To insure the selection of materials that will show relationships wherever they exist, the pupil should start out with a definite purpose in mind. This consideration of relationships and working with materials develops a quality of mind action that can be developed in no other way.

We all know the old saying that a craving for riches grows as the wealth increases; something similar is true of the collections brought together for the purpose of advancing knowledge. The more they grow the more conspicuous their deficiencies become and the more desirous we are to fill up the gaps which so provokingly interfere with our extracting from them the complete story that they have to tell.

A vast amount of material may be acquired by estab-

lishing exchanges with schools in different parts of the country. A large part of our material was gotten in this way and from donations made by patrons who are interested in the school. The major portion of the collections was contributed by large manufacturing concerns, who are always willing to aid worthy enterprises, and have responded most generously to all appeals addressed to them.

3. Classification and Arrangement.

The classification and arrangement of materials are of prime importance. The wise curator will carefully consider the needs of the school, and consequently the object of his museum and the space available to carry out this object. He will then divide the subjects to be illustrated into groups and consider their relative proportions according to which he will plan his space. Large labels will next be prepared for the principal headings and smaller ones for the various subdivisions.

We cannot have illustrations of all the things in the world ; there is no room for them, and unless we know how to select material and how to classify it, we shall soon be swamped. With this idea in mind, what shall control the selection of specimens for a museum ? Not, certainly, as often happens, the bringing together of a number of things almost by haphazard, and cramming them as closely as possible into a case with little reference to their order or the possibility of their being distinctly seen. If an object is worth putting into a museum it is worth such a position as will enable it to be seen, and where it may be easily reached.

Out of the mass of duplicates special collections may be arranged and placed in the different school-rooms for use in connection with nature study. No absolute duplicate should be allowed on the shelves.

It is not always easy to obtain all the illustrative specimens necessary, consequently gaps will often appear ;

but these, if properly utilized by drawings or labels, may be made nearly as useful as if occupied by the actual specimen. Very few people have any idea of the multiplicity of objects required for the purpose of working out many of the simplest problems concerning the life history of animals or plants.

The most important unit available for illustrating a people is the family group—the man, woman, and children, with their costumes, personal adornments, and general belongings. In the museum to which I have referred, there are several of these groups, illustrating such tribes as would serve best as types of the ethnic provinces distributed between the northern and southern extremes. Two of these groups, the Greenland Eskimo and the Patagonian, stand at the northern and southern extremity of the series. Each member of the group is represented as engaged in some suitable occupation. The activities of the people are thus illustrated. These lay figures are very expensive, consequently their number is limited. The first case beginning at the north represents an Eskimo family and is accompanied by the following card explanation:

“This is an Eskimo family of Smith Sound, the most northern inhabitants of the known world. On account of the prevalence of ice the year round they make little use of the kaiak, or skin boat, employed so constantly by the southern Eskimo. These northern Eskimo use the dog sled for transportation. Their clothing is made from the skins of the seal, reindeer, birds, and dogs. Their houses are usually built of snow, and their activities are nearly all associated with the mere struggle for existence. This group represents a family as it might appear in the spring moving across the ice fields.”

To group No. 2, the following card is subjoined:

“This group illustrates a Sioux family, which is taken as a type of the inhabitants of the Great Plain. It was on this plain that the Sioux, Kiowa, and Algonkin de-

veloped their peculiar culture. The activities of all these tribes were created and fostered by the buffalo, including their food, dress, tents, tools, utensils, arts, industries, and social life. In the group appear a man, who is a hunter, returning with a trophy of the chase; the wife, who is butcher, tanner, pack animal, and general drudge, is dressing a hide; the young girl is beading a moccasin; the boy is making a bow and arrow."

The agricultural series are placed in upright cases along the wall and the reptiles and fish occupy a series of floor cases with sloping tops. It is impossible, on account of limited space and limited funds, to show the natural surroundings of these various species, while to display them on plain wooden stands was thought to deprive them of a certain amount of attractiveness. A compromise was therefore effected by using small stands and suggesting the environment by the introduction of a few plants, a rock or two, a little snow, the branch of a tree, etc. Thus the indigo snake was mounted on a base covered with sand, and a few pine cones to indicate that it is a denizen of the pine barrens. The condor was represented perched on a pointed rock, suggesting its mountain habitat, and was labeled thus:

"CONDOR.

Sarcorhamphus gryphus (Linnæus.)

This huge American vulture is one of the largest birds of flight and probably occupies the first place among the land birds. Its range is restricted mainly to the Andes, where it ascends to heights not reached by any other creature. The condor is of slow growth, requiring about seven years to obtain full plumage. The young birds occupy the nest for a year or more before they are able to fly."

One of the most interesting and perhaps the most valuable department of the museum is that to which we have given the name "Plant Economics." A description

of the cotton and corn series will indicate the scope and arrangement of the various other series represented in this department. The cases are of maple, finished as light as possible; the shelving is black, as this color seems to afford the most desirable background. The labels are in simple language and printed in large type. The cotton occupies three standard screen cases 8 feet 6 inches long. Each article is accompanied by an explanatory label, and the series is embellished by four large framed pictures, which are excellent representations of (1) "Cotton Pickers in the Field;" (2) "Hauling Cotton to the Gin;" (3) "A Modern Cotton Gin;" (4) "A Cotton Transport Loading for Liverpool." The following labels are subjoined to the appropriate articles:

"1. Cotton as it comes from the field."

"2. Cotton-seed."

"3. Ginned cotton."

"4. Cleaned seed."

"5. Crushed seed (first step in oil extraction.)"

"6. Partial separation. This crushed seed now passes from the crusher down an inclined shaker with a perforated bottom, along which the separation of the kernels takes place, until, as seen in the next sample, no meal is left in the hulls."

"7. Hulls."

"8. Kernels. Each ton of crushed seed yields 1,000 pounds of kernels."

"9. Meal. The last process accomplishes a complete crushing of the kernels into a coarse meal."

"10. Cotton-seed oil. Under the appropriate pressure oil runs freely from all parts of the press and is caught in large vats beneath the floor of the press-room and allowed to settle before being drawn off into tanks for transportation to refineries."

"11. Oil-cake."

Then follow samples of various cotton materials, displayed on black mounts and appropriately labeled: Muslins, cambrics, nansook, lawns, cotton flannels, duck, dimity, netting, and various laces, thread, etc., etc.

In the collection of cotton-seed products, there are various oils, "crude cotton-seed oil," vegetable lards, glycerine, etc., and a variety of soaps made from cotton-seed. The oils and soaps were presented by The Fairbanks Company.

The celluloids are among the most interesting of the cotton by-products, and all gratitude is due the "Celluloid Company of New York," the donor of our fine collection, which includes imitations of tortoise-shell brush, comb, and mirror; an ornamental figure in imitation of "old ivory;" a toilet set, brush, comb, mirror, etc., in imitation of ebony; other similar articles made of celluloid in imitation of amber, agate, jade, coral, linen, etc., and other things too numerous to mention, such as collars, cuffs, buttons, buckles, and trays.

Corn and wheat are most conspicuous among the "useful grasses." The corn series occupies three cases. The samples are displayed in bottles with glass stoppers, purchased from White, Hall & Tatum, Chicago. A copy of the labels may prove helpful to those who intend to prepare similar series:

"1. Corn (shelled.) Corn is one of the chief articles of food, and the source of the greater part of the distilled liquors and alcohol produced in this country. In addition to this it is being increasingly used as an ingredient of malt liquors, either directly as meal or indirectly as glucose."

"2. Degerminated Corn. The first process in milling is the removal of the hull and germ. The corn is passed through a machine, the degerminator, which cracks and slightly crushes the kernels, thus loosening the thin hull and freeing the germ from the rest of the corn."

"3. Hulls. The thin hulls are removed from the corn by the first bolting after it has passed through the degerminator. The hulls are utilized in stock feed."

"4. Germs. The germs removed in the first bolting contain a considerable amount of oil. They are ground, (see 5) the oil expressed (see 6), and the resulting cake is used in 'Hominy Chop.'"

THE INDUSTRIAL STATUS OF THE DEAF.

[An interesting and valuable report concerning the Industrial Status of the Deaf after leaving school was presented to the Congress of the Deaf in St. Louis last August. The report will be published in full in the Proceedings of the Congress, but we are glad to have the following summary of it for the *Annals*. The questions used by the committee in obtaining the information contained in their report were published in the *Annals* for January, 1903, vol. xlviii, pp. 125-127. It is to be regretted that the answers to the inquiries were not more numerous, but as the committee was continued, and enlarged by the addition of two new members, and now constitutes a permanent Bureau of Industrial Statistics, we may hope for fuller and still more useful information from it in the future.—E. A. F.]

THE committee was appointed by the President of the Association, J. L. Smith, in December, 1899, and consisted of Warren Robinson, Chairman, Alex. Pach, and Phil. L. Axling. Its work was to collect data, etc., relating to the deaf in the industrial world, to be used in bettering their condition.

The committee early memorialized the heads of schools for the deaf on the importance of improved industrial education, receiving encouraging replies. It addressed a paper to the Conference of Superintendents and Principals in session at Talladega, Alabama, calling attention to the question of the establishment of Industrial Bureaus in schools for the deaf to help pupils leaving school to get employment. The Conference thought such bureaus unnecessary. It prepared and sent out three sets of questions embodied in circulars to employers of the deaf, the deaf in business, and deaf workmen. Considerable difficulty has been experienced in securing returns, but the data obtained, though somewhat limited, is considered of inestimable value as a beginning, considering the magnitude of the undertaking, to say nothing of the aid it will be as a basis in forming a better judgment of the deaf in their industrial relations. The committee deemed it too soon to make recommendations as to courses to be pursued in

plans looking toward improving conditions, etc., and desired that it be retained and empowered to continue the prosecution of the work so auspiciously begun.

The following is a summary of the replies received by the committee:

I. Employers of the Deaf.

Fourteen employers employing sixty-four deaf persons responded. Each employed from one to twenty-six, most of them having from only one to two or three. Employers reveal a great lack of acquaintance both with the deaf and with the means of communicating with them; that being one of the leading drawbacks to getting started. The deaf are very generally considered good or satisfactory employés, in some cases above the ordinary. The majority of the employers say the deaf are not discriminated against. Only one answered in the affirmative, and the others conditionally, but their replies may be regarded as encouraging rather than discouraging.

Lip-reading appears to be of limited use, writing and signs taking precedence.

The deaf might better begin their industrial careers as soon as school is over than have it continued at the schools.

It is strongly the consensus of opinion that the deaf should be helped in every possible way to secure employment after leaving school. An extensive use of the letter of recommendation and the "open letter" is suggested.

More thoroughness is recommended in the industrial departments of our schools rather than many lines of work; more common sense and less theory.

Most employers would prefer a hearing man, chiefly because they do not understand the deaf and not particularly on account of any prejudice. The two following replies will throw light on this point: "Yes, until tried; the trouble is to get the trial." "No prejudice, but it takes more time to explain work to them."

It is noted that the deaf are not generally cheerful enough, being inclined to be gloomy, morose, or suspicious, which has an important bearing on their success or failure in securing and retaining employment.

II. *The Deaf in Business.*

Twenty-five were heard from. The length of time in school was from eighteen months to ten years, but most of them were in school less than seven years. Sixteen of the twenty-five are semi-mutes. Fourteen of them own their business and the remainder are in with relatives or partners.

As a rule the deaf in business are successful to such an extent as to encourage more to enter the field.

The obstacles to starting in business outside of those difficulties encountered by the hearing are: The ignorance and prejudice of the hearing with respect to the abilities of the deaf and their not being accustomed to do business with them, the inability of the deaf to mingle with the hearing, and timidity, deafness itself, and the fact that the deaf are too easily discouraged.

Some of the deaf in business question the merits of the deaf workman, but furnish no convincing proof that he is inferior to the hearing one. As a means of communication writing and speech take precedence over lip-reading.

The large town is preferable to the small one for business.

The large majority are in favor of holding a business convention of the deaf.

Eleven advised the deaf with average intellectual attainment to go into business, but with an "if."

As to occupations not requiring a high degree of intelligence the business men recommend to their fellow deaf agriculture and trade pursuits and manual labor.

With very few exceptions there was satisfaction with the amount of business done, and only three had any complaints about getting credit at banks or with other business men.

The suggestions for improving the industrial departments of our schools were substantially as follows: Better and better paid instructors, more modern methods and equipment, with the addition of trades that were more remunerative, and more instruction in agricultural branches.

III. *Data from Deaf Workmen.*

The following summary is appended in the hope that the gist of the foregoing information will be better understood:

1. A period of ten years in school appears to give the best average results. Below seven years is insufficient in most cases.

2. There are few ordinary occupations in which the deaf cannot or do not engage.

3. More deaf workmen learn a new trade when they leave school than follow the trade they are taught at school.

4. Deaf workmen, as a rule, have a preference for working in large shops or factories rather than in small ones.

5. The deaf workman has the tendency to change his line of work too often, thus making him only semi-expert in any one line.

6. Employers and foremen treat deaf workmen the same as they do hearing workmen.

7. Deafness is a hindrance to an extent, but is not such a formidable barrier to success as has been popularly supposed.

8. Too few deaf workmen avail themselves of the advantages offered by membership in the union of their respective crafts.

9. The deaf workman usually has steady work. Those who have not generally have themselves to blame.

10. The eternal hope of being in business for himself is strong in the breast of the deaf workman.

11. It is the almost unanimous opinion of our correspondents that rural pursuits are better for the deaf than factory work.

12. Hearing workmen generally learn the manual alphabet when they have a deaf fellow workman.

13. The "best" trade for the deaf is that for which each individual is best adapted.

14. As to the schools helping the deaf to get work upon their leaving, opinions are about evenly divided.

15. While many of our correspondents retain the power of speech, they resort more to writing, and few of them are good at lip-reading.

16. The general opinion is that the deaf should leave school when their literary term is completed and enter shops and factories, rather than take a post-graduate course in industrial lines. Circumstances, such as native ability, equipment in school shops, etc., have an important bearing on the course to follow. The school shops are not, as a general thing, conducted on lines sufficiently modern.

17. The deaf invariably get the same wages as the hearing for the same class of work.

18. Employers and foremen are glad to have deaf workmen who can show that they have the ability to do the work expected of them, and take them on a basis equal to that of the hearing. If they are competent their services secure ready recognition.

Respectfully submitted.

WARREN ROBINSON, *Chairman*,
ALEX. PACH,
PHIL. L. AXLING,
Committee.

THE ST. LOUIS CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS.

THE Ninth Triennial Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf, which met at St. Louis, October 17 to 20, 1904, was held under pleasant auspices. By invitation of the Department of International Congresses of the Universal Exposition it had its meetings in the Halls of Congresses on the Exposition grounds and, without sacrificing anything of its individuality, was recognized as one of the authorized International Congresses of Education, Arts, and Science, which constituted a prominent and honorable feature of the Exposition.

The attendance was larger than at any previous Conference. Forty Superintendents and Principals were recorded as present, representing most of the largest and most important schools in America and one school in Sweden. There were also thirty-one honorary members, including ten or more directors or trustees of schools, several teachers from the United States and one from Germany, several deaf-blind pupils with their teachers, the State Inspector of Wisconsin Schools, the editor of the *Association Review*, and the chief friend of the deaf-blind. The members were for the most part faithful in their attendance upon the sessions of the Conference.

The subjects discussed, such as "Courses of Study and Text-books," "Examinations, Grading, and Promotions," "Higher Education of the Deaf," "Further Development of Industrial Training," "Artistic Development Industrially," "The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association," "Moral and Religious Training," "Day-Schools," "Supervision and Care of Pupils," "The Deaf-Blind," etc., were of practical value, and the members expressed their differing opinions clearly,

frankly, and earnestly. Among the most interesting and valuable contributions were two papers from foreign delegates, Mrs. Elisabeth Anrep-Nordin, Principal of the School for the Deaf-Blind at Venersborg, Sweden, and Miss Amkea Schmidt, a teacher in the school at Emden, Germany.

As the proceedings will be published in full in a future "Conference number" of the *Annals*, no further report of them is given here. Usually the Conferences of Superintendents and Principals have been held at some school for the deaf, and the proceedings have been reported and published at the expense of the school entertaining the Conference. As this arrangement was not practicable at St. Louis, the proceedings were reported and will be printed at the expense of the *Annals*. In order that our treasury may not be too much depleted by the additional expenditure thus incurred, several numbers of the *Annals*, including the present one, will have fewer pages than usual.

HELEN KELLER DAY AT ST. LOUIS.

THERE were many special "days" at the World's Fair named after States and cities and after famous men and women of the past, but Helen Keller is the only living person who was thus honored. An immense number of people gathered at the Hall of Congresses to greet her on "Helen Keller Day," October 18, 1904, filling the seats, aisles, and windows, while thousands sought admittance in vain. A newspaper reporter said that the throng was greater than any that had come together to do honor to the renowned statesmen and scholars who had held their meetings in that hall during the summer.

Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, President of Gallaudet College, presided. He introduced the Hon. David R. Francis,

President of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, as the first speaker. Mr. Francis, on behalf of the authorities of the Fair, gave a graceful address of welcome to Miss Keller. Referring to a conversation he had had with her that morning, in which she had said that a new vocabulary would be necessary adequately to express the beauties of the Exposition, he said that a new vocabulary must be made before words could be found to do justice to the achievements of Helen Keller.

Miss Keller then delivered an address. As her voice is not strong she spoke it sentence by sentence to Miss Sullivan, who repeated it in the same way to Mr. Francis, who repeated it to the audience. Those near her could hear the sound of her voice, though they could not understand the words clearly until they were repeated; but the whole audience could see and sympathize with the deep feeling and earnestness expressed in her animated countenance as she spoke.

MISS KELLER'S ADDRESS.

I have been asked to come here to-day and lend my voice for the uplifting of those who struggle in unequal and untoward circumstances. All these great halls of machinery, power, and art are the achievements of the strength of man when his arm is free and his heart unbound. In the midst of so much achievement, the presence of our convention tells us that man has not forgotten his weaker brother. *Many have been invited here because of learning, skill, or achievement; for their contributions to the beauty and art of the world. I am here, not for what I have done, but for what has been done for me—to raise me to the level of those that see and hear.*

I testify to what the good and grand have done for deprivation and infirmity. My evidence is of able men and women who have done what they could to unstop ears, open eyes, give speech to the lips of the dumb and light

to darkened minds. I enter with you into the community of living speech, and for the joy of speech I express my heartfelt gratitude.

Such is my brief and earnest message to you. Now, may I say what seems to be the message of the Exposition to us who work—the sightless and the seeing, the dumb and the hearing? Here are manufactures and works of art; yonder stands the locomotive; there the manifestation of irrigation which has annihilated the desert; and in the halls of education man reclaims his fellow man by annihilating darkness.

The Louisiana Purchase Exposition is a great manifestation of enlightenment. All of man's thousand torches burn here at once. The Exposition is what its founder intended it to be—a world university. Here we see the machine and its products, side by side, body and soul together. Here we see the root, the process, and the fruit. This Fair is an epitome of the world. It stretches the capacity of the soul and extends the intellect.

Here all nations are brought together. We of America think no country since Eden has been so good as ours; but no nation is so great as the sum of all. Here the spirit of civilization shines forth, illumined by the work of those who help the ones that must walk in darkness. The desire to help them is more deeply implanted now than in any other age; the world is on our side.

The forces here displayed lift up my hands and support my weakness. Science, nature, and art say to me:

“Thou art deaf and blind, but enter thou into the Kingdom of God.”

God bless the nations that provide an education for all.

Here and at other intervals between the addresses excellent music was given by the orchestra from the Missouri School for the Blind. At one point the “Blind Twins,” two little eight-year-old brothers from the Kansas School

for the Blind, played as a violin duet one of their own compositions. As they finished playing and the audience were applauding Miss Keller stepped over to them and kissed them.

President Gallaudet then delivered an address, a considerable part of which consisted of a description of the methods of Helen Keller's education. It was listened to with great interest by the audience, but we omit that part here, as those methods have been fully described in a former volume of the *Annals* (xxxvii, 127-154).

PRESIDENT GALLAUDET'S ADDRESS.

Ladies and Gentlemen :

The occasion which brings us together to-day is quite without parallel or precedent.

We are assembled to show our interest in a young lady, widely known and universally admired, who, in spite of difficulties that would at first thought seem insurmountable, has achieved success as a student in literature and the arts that would be a just source of pride to any young man or woman of our time.

No college honors have been more fairly earned or more justly worn than those accorded to Helen Adams Keller at Radcliffe College last June. The round of applause which greeted her as she received her diploma from the hands of the President of the College has been echoed in the hearts of her many friends in this and other lands. And all unite in the hope that on the foundation of the sound college training which she has had, a superstructure of intellectual and spiritual development may arise which shall give her to the world as one of the most interesting personalities of the twentieth century.

But Miss Keller is not here to be lauded and glorified. Nothing is further from her wish, for her modesty almost determined her to decline the honor of a Helen Keller

Day at the St. Louis Fair. And she finally consented to accept the invitation of the authorities of the Fair only because she was satisfied that her appearance before the public on an occasion like this might be the means of increasing general interest in and securing generous support for the most liberal education possible for those who were laboring under disabilities similar to her own.

The education of Helen Keller is often regarded and spoken of as a miracle. People uninformed of the methods used in developing the powers of her mind are full of wonder as to the way in which ideas were first communicated to her, how she was made to understand that words had definite meanings. That no miracle was performed, but that by the aid of means perfectly natural in dealing with a child who was blind and deaf, information in great variety was conveyed to her mind, will be evident from the interesting account given in the letters of her teacher, Miss Sullivan, published in the appendix to Helen's "Story of My Life." * * *

As I said at the opening of my remarks the glorification of Miss Keller is not the object of this day named for her. It is to give her an opportunity to make an appeal in behalf of those who are laboring under disabilities like her own. I am sure we shall all most heartily sustain and second this appeal, pledging ourselves to do everything in our power to brighten the lot of those to whom the sunlight of sight and the music of sound can never come.

A statement by Miss Sarah Fuller of Boston, describing the methods by which she taught Helen Keller to speak, was read by Mr. Alvin E. Pope, Superintendent of the Model Schools for the Deaf and the Blind at the Exposition. We omit this also, as a similar statement has been published in a previous volume of the *Annals* (xxxvii, 23-30).

Dr. Warring Wilkinson, Principal of the California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind, delivered the following address :

DR. WILKINSON'S ADDRESS.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen :

As representative of a far-away State, it gives me great pleasure to be with you on this occasion, and to join this great assembly in celebrating a day which the Executive Committee of this magnificent Exposition has set apart for special honor and called "The Helen Keller Day." It was a gracious thing for the management to do. It was also a very proper thing to do. The nations of the earth have sent here for comparison and competition their choicest possessions, the rarest products of soil and climate, of hand work and brain work, of civilization and beneficence, but I venture to say that in all this array of natural wealth, of splendid achievement in art, in mechanical invention, and in scientific discovery, gathered from all the continents and the islands of the sea, there is no choicer "exhibit" than the pure white soul of Helen Keller, who sits on this platform looking with the eyes which education has given her upon the infinite glory that awaits her, and at the same time with an almost divine optimism thanking Him

" who left
Unto her soul yet open avenues,
For joy to enter and for love to use."

I well know how like inordinate hyperbole this sounds, and it is so if this statement is to be judged by the hard materialism which seems so prevalent and so dominant at the present day, but I beg you to gauge my exaggeration of speech by the priceless worth of human souls ; for I am at one with Mr. Andrew D. White when he says that "this country could afford to lose all that it has yet

attained if by so doing its inhabitants become true and faithful men and women." I believe most profoundly in the verity of that statement, for these are the things that endure. The material achievements of men are but the temporary housings that perish with the using. If in some great cataclysm of nature all the tenements and temples and monuments and ships and railroads and wealth were destroyed, and the world could be left with its accumulated experience of patience and faith and hope and charity and love, the world would be better for the change; for out of this wreck of matter would speedily rise a new earth spanned by a nobler heaven than vision of prophet ever saw. No need of crystal sea nor jeweled gates nor golden streets to adorn this new Jerusalem. The all-sufficient beauty and glory thereof would be its true and faithful men and women.

I am not here to add, nor attempt to add, anything to the stream of sympathy and praise which has set steadily towards this dear young woman for so many years. It would do her no good, and that she has not already been swept from her base is the best evidence of her strength of character and the saneness of her mind. She *must* know that the sympathy, the tenderness, the compassion of the world are at her beck and call, and if the love and prayers of human hearts avail anything, no evil thing shall ever come nigh to her to mar her serenity or to trouble her peace.

Nor am I here to discuss the methods by which Helen Keller's marvellous intelligence has been developed and led upwards into the sweetness and joy of life; how she has come to have that refined appreciation of literature and that facile and accurate use of language which we call culture, and how she has been able in spite of her handicapped faculties to master the severer branches of a college curriculum. These are questions of academic interest and of pedagogic value, but their consideration,

it seems to me, belongs to the closet, the class room and the Conference, rather than to the platform of a jubilation day. For myself, I am content to take Helen Keller as she is, and thank God for her. When in my tramps through the mountain regions of my own State I come upon a Shasta lily, growing out of most unpromising soil, surrounded by chaparral, yet filling all the air with its delicate perfume, brightening the day with the whiteness of its petals, and modestly performing its functions as a thing of beauty, its own excuse for being, I do not bring out my blow-pipe and retorts and chemical and laboratory appliances and fall to scratching the hard earth and tearing the tender roots and subjecting soil and rootlets to fire and biting acids and such cruel processes as the chemist knows how to use, in hopes of finding by what subtle alchemy nature has produced so glorious a flower. This may well be and is the business of the vegetable physiologist or the psychologist, if you will, for I am half inclined to believe that flowers have souls. And even so a study of Helen Keller methods of intellectual development is well worth the careful and thorough investigation of the teacher, but I never was a scientist and to-day I am not even a pedagogue. I am not sorry, however, that the chairman has seen fit to make allusion to some of the means used in Miss Keller's education, because we often find people who are more interested in the processes than in the results of our work. But on this occasion I am here simply to ask the privilege of joining you in paying tribute to one whose intelligence and achievement under enormous difficulties have astonished the scholar; whose lovable personality has won the affection of all who have come to know her, and whose patience and sweet submission under the saddest of all afflictions have made her example an inspiration for all time. Such lives are not lived in vain.

A marked feature of the occasion was the presence of the deaf-blind children, Lottie Sullivan of Colorado, Ruby Rice of Texas, and Emma Kubecek of Illinois, with their respective teachers, Mrs. G. W. Veditz, Miss Mamie Heflybower, and Mrs. Helen R. Jordan. Two adult deaf-blind persons, Miss Madie Woodbury and Mr. Clarence J. Selby, were also present. The interest these deaf-blind people aroused in the audience was only surpassed by the interest in Miss Keller.

In the evening a pleasant reception in Miss Keller's honor was held in the Missouri building by the deaf of St. Louis. Addresses were made by Mr. Francis, Dr. Gallaudet, and Mr. William Wade, the chief friend of the deaf-blind.

NECROLOGY.

THE number of deaths in our profession since the last issue of the *Annals*, if we include those of teachers who had retired from the work, is unusually large. As our personal acquaintance with most of the persons named was slight, the brief characterizations which follow are chiefly taken from the papers published at the schools with which they were connected.

ELLA S. DAWSON died in Philadelphia, September 28, 1904. She was a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution from 1890 until the time of her death. "Without ostentation she was deeply religious. Devoted to her work and to her friends, possessed of a brilliant mind and a rare good humor, she endeared herself to all who knew her. In her death the Institution lost a valued teacher and those who knew her best a friend whose devotion was unwavering, tender, and true."

ELEANOR [LANGLOIS] MCCOY died at her home in Delavan, Wisconsin, June 5, 1904, aged 74. She lost her

hearing at the age of five, was educated in the New York Institution, was assistant matron in that Institution for one year, taught a private pupil in Canada for five years, was married to Mr. Z. G. McCoy in 1861, and for twenty-two years was a teacher in the Wisconsin School. "She was a remarkable woman, a natural and efficient teacher, with a sweet personality that won all hearts, and a true and loyal friend to the Institution that she loved."

FREDERICK D. MORRISON died at St. Joseph's Hospital, Baltimore, October 8, 1904, of appendicitis, aged 67. He was a native of Maryland, was at the head of the Maryland School for the Blind from 1864 until his death, and was also Superintendent of the Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf since its establishment in 1872, though the management of the latter institution devolved chiefly upon the resident Principal. He was regarded as an eminent authority in the education of the blind, was deeply interested in the education of the deaf, "was conspicuous in many lines of charitable and public interest, and was a genial, warm-hearted Christian gentleman."

MARY B. STRAW died at her home in Pulaski, Ohio, October 8, 1904, of appendicitis, aged 48. Her father was deaf from birth and she became partly deaf from sickness in childhood. She was educated in the Ohio Institution and taught there acceptably from 1876 to 1890.

ALICE H. [FREEMAN] TODD died at her home in Indianapolis, October 9, 1904, aged 49. She was a native of Indianapolis, became deaf at nine from scarlet fever, was educated at the Indiana and Michigan Schools, taught three years in the Michigan School and three in the Indiana School, and was married in 1884 to Mr. William E. Todd, bookkeeper of the Indiana School. Her husband, a daughter, and two sons survive her. "She was a consistent Christian, a woman of great mental activity, an omniverous reader, and a graceful writer. Her friends were not limited to the deaf, but extended far among the hearing."

MARIA L. WARDROPER died September 2, 1904, at the home of her sister in Wilkinsburg, Pennsylvania. She was formerly a teacher in the Arkansas School, where she was at the head of the Oral Department, and at the time of her death was a teacher in the Kentucky School. "She possessed a cultured mind, stored with the treasures of the English language, and it was ever her ambition to awaken in her advanced grades a conception of the beauties of the mother tongue. She was besides a faithful worker who had no higher pleasure than that of seeing her pupils advance in knowledge and in those graces that make for beauty of character."

GEORGE L. WEED died at his home in Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, September 22, 1904, aged 76. He was a graduate of Marietta College and of Andover Theological Seminary, a teacher in the Ohio Institution from 1854 to 1861, Superintendent of that Institution from 1863 to 1866, Superintendent of the Wisconsin School from 1871 to 1875, and a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution from 1875 to 1894. He was the author of "Great Truths Simply Told," and other religious works. For many years he gave Sunday lectures at Girard College. "He was more than a great man in the ordinary sense. He was a good man. Sweet in disposition, lovable by nature, neighborly and helpful, his life was one full of good works."

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AMERICAN ANNALS

OF

The Deaf,

EDITED BY

EDWARD ALLEN FAY,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

R. O. JOHNSON, OF INDIANA, F. D. CLARKE, OF
MICHIGAN, J. H. JOHNSON, OF ALABAMA,
A. L. E. CROUTER, OF PENNSYLVANIA,
AND J. W. JONES, OF OHIO,

Committee of the Conference of Superintendents and Prin-
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Time was when we told you what we were going to do.

Time is when we can point to what we have done.

Time will be when it will be too late for you to profit
by what we have done, are doing, and
are going to do.

During the past summer we have built ten homes for as many different families. These homes cost from \$1,000 to \$3,000. Some we sold as soon as the plans were drawn, others before the roof was on, and only one of them did we complete before selling. They were all sold at prices that net our Company a good profit.

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Take stock and share the profits with us.

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**JAY COOKE HOWARD, Secretary,
Duluth, Minn.**